The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 9, 1888.

The Week.

THE revision of the civil-service rules is generally recognized as marking another step forward in the march of reform. The only intelligent criticism which we find anywhere is that which is directed against the refusal by the President to endorse the rule recommended by two of the three Commissioners, that the appointing officer should be required to file a written statement of the cause of dismissal in every case. We are aware that not a few civil-service reformers have always favored a regulation of this sort, and there is something to be said in its favor, but the arguments on the other side appear to us much the stronger. It constantly happens in private business that an employer thinks it wise to discharge a man because he is not entirely satisfied with the manner in which he does his work, although it would often seem too harsh to charge the delinquent publicly with neglect of duty. The same thing is always liable to happen in a public office. The civil service cannot be conducted efficiently if there must be a public trial every time that the head of an office thinks it wise to dismiss a subordinate. The competitive system renders it impossible to smuggle a man into a vacancy, and thus removes the only really dangerous motive for making a vacancy. With admission to the service thus guarded, the length of retention may be left safely to the discretion of the appointing power.

Senator Kenna of West Virginia, in his speech on the tariff question last Thursday, opened a volume entitled 'Speeches and Reports on Finance and Taxation, by John Sherman, edited by himself,' and read a number of curious passages. In one of these the Ohio Senator said that it was absurd to use such general phrases as a protective tariff, a revenue tariff, a free-trade tariff, without defining them and telling what we mean by them, since any duties on imported goods were more or less in restraint of trade. "The expression a free-trade tariff involves an absurdity," he said. This being quite in harmony with President Cleveland's saying that "it is a condition, not a theory, that confronts us," and that "our progress towards a wise conclusion will not be improved by dwelling upon the theories of protection and free trade," we might infer that the President wrote his message immediately after a gratified perusal of Senator Sherman's speeches. Mr. Kenna, continuing his extracts from the volume, read another showing that it is "an absurdity to talk about a free-trade tariff and to talk about a protective tariff, because the wit of man could not possibly frame a tariff that would produce $140,000,000 gold without *amply* protecting American industry." The present tariff, Mr. Kenna said, was yielding $212,000,000. But no man could possibly cut it down to $140,000,000 without "amply" protecting American industry! But this was not all, nor the worst. Another paragraph from the book said:

> "If you reduce their productions [the manufacturers'] to a specie basis and put them on the same footing they were on before the war, *the present rates of duty would be too high.*"

The same or higher rates of duty are now existing that were in force when Mr. Sherman uttered this true saying, and, since specie payments have been long since restored, it follows that the present rates are too high and that President Cleveland is quite right.

Up to this point Mr. Kenna had done very well in exposing the shams of Mr. Sherman's recent speech on the tariff, but in an unguarded moment he dipped into another part of the Ohio Senator's record, showing how, at one time, the Senator advocated and actually carried through Congress a bill to promote the introduction of "contract labor" into this country. Mr. Sherman replied that he had no recollection of the bill or the speech. Mr. Kenna offered to show both to him. Mr. Sherman declined to look at them, but said he would look them up for himself. Mr. Kenna obligingly gave him the date, July, 1864. That furnished just the text that Mr. Sherman wanted. It was in the midst of the war that the bill to encourage contract labor was introduced. With 2,000,000 of our workingmen under arms down South, how could we get along without foreign labor? At that time he would have passed any law or done anything "to beat the Democratic party, because the success of that party was the dissolution of the Union." Having got on the war issue, Mr. Sherman began to grow strong, and after exciting the galleries with a pleasing picture of our brave Union soldiers cutting down the hosts of treason and rebellion in front, while foreign laborers were cutting down wheat, and corn, and oats in the rear, he manœuvred up to the tariff question in a broad way, avoiding any allusion to the sayings quoted by Mr. Kenna, and closed with general applause. Mr. Kenna's effort was a fresh illustration of the maxim that when you have fully made out your case, you had best stop.

The *Railroad Gazette* of Friday mentions the placing of an order for 30,000 tons of steel rails by the Pennsylvania Railway Company at $31.50 per ton, the order being divided between the Pennsylvania Steel Company, the Cambria Iron Company, and the Edgar Thompson Steel Works. So large an order as this necessarily establishes a price for a short time. There is reason to believe that the Committee of Ways and Means have fixed upon $11 per ton as the duty on steel rails in the new tariff bill, the present duty being $17. The latest London *Economist* received here quotes steel rails at £4 2s. 6d. to £4 5s. at Middlesborough. That is, the English price is about $20.50 per ton on the furnace bank. Add this price to the proposed duty of $11 per ton, and we have exactly the price at which the American steel-rail producers are voluntarily selling, no account being made of the freight from Middlesborough to Liverpool, from Liverpool to New York, and from New York to inland points. We trust that this coincidence between the price considered satisfactory by the steel-rail combination and the price at which rails could be got from abroad under a $11 duty if they could be transported by witchcraft, will save us from any great amount of wailing on this subject when the Tariff Bill comes up for debate, and spare all hands the necessity of showing that American labor is not ruined.

The customary plea against a repeal of the coal duty is that it would not do any good, because there is no foreign coal that could come in competition with American coal anyway. A morning contemporary publishes an interview with Mr. E. L. Morris, the agent of the West Virginia and Pittsburgh Railway Co., which owns and operates some bituminous mines on the other side of the Alleghanies. Mr. Morris says that in his opinion the repeal of the duty "would have no effect whatever." His reasons are, that "the Nova Scotia coal is of such inferior quality that a limited quantity would be used if it could be obtained without duty and without price; besides, some of the insurance companies (if not all of them) have refused to take risks on factories where this coal is now used in small quantities (in some parts of New England), and what is used is 'culm,' upon which the duty is only 30 cents a ton; the reason of this refusal is, the coal is liable to ignite by spontaneous combustion." Being asked how much of this Nova Scotia coal could be used in this country if there were no duties on it, he answered: "I do not think that an appreciable amount could be placed in the markets here, as it is not a suitable fuel for the manufacturers of this country." The conclusion would seem to be necessary and inevitable that the duty on coal is maintained *because it is of no use.* All the lobbying and wind work at Washington in favor of the coal tariff is kept up because there would be no coal imported even if it were admitted free. The duty was raised from 50 cents per ton to 75 cents a few years ago because no duty at all was necessary. We trust that Congressmen will not go crazy trying to understand this argument. We think that very little coal would be imported if the duty were repealed; but that little would be a help to New England manufacturers and smelters whose works are conveniently situated near the seacoast, and to whom a very little cheapening of fuel might be the difference between life and death to their industries. We agree with Mr. Morris that American coal-producers would suffer nothing.

What the outcome may be of the demand of the coal-miners in the Wyoming and Lackawanna districts for an advance of 15

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per cent. in wages, it is very difficult to forecast. Probably the chief officers of the companies themselves do not know. It has been plain for some time that without a strike in these districts the Lehigh and Schuylkill strikers must fail. If Wyoming and Lackawanna could supply all the coal wanted by the public, it was simply a question of endurance in the other districts between the companies and the men, and of course the men must eventually yield, or see their places gradually filled by others who are willing to work for the wages offered. Rioting and Molly Maguireism may continue for a season, but the power of the law must overcome all resistance in the end, and it must be remembered, too, that Pennsylvania has a gallows in reserve for murderers. The demand of the Wyoming miners involves very weighty considerations. Can the country afford to pay 15 per cent. more for its fuel? Can anthracite coal compete with bituminous at such an advance, or at any advance, in those places where they come in competition with each other? Can the anthracite companies themselves compete with each other at an advanced price when it has been shown experimentally that one-half of them are able to supply the public demand for coal in the depth of winter, while the other half are idle? Upon the answers to these questions must depend the answers which the companies give to the demand for an advance. The questions are too complicated and far-reaching to be answered dogmatically. The only thing quite certain is that the law must be upheld at any cost. Whatever suffering may result, the right of laboring men to accept wages satisfactory to them and the right of the companies to hire men who are willing to work, must be maintained. It was maintained in the last great strike, and it will be so again. Perhaps the State of Pennsylvania will come to a decision upon this point all the sooner under the influence of a coal famine.

A pretty vigorous protest is coming up from the South against the "Adulterated Lard" Bill. The Mississippi Legislature has passed resolutions against it, and the Merchants' and Cotton Exchanges of New Orleans have sent protests against it to Congress. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* calls it a bill "to reduce the value of cotton seed 50 per cent." It is very evident that the bill will not pass without a fight. Indeed, it is doubtful if it passes at all. If Congress is to undertake the regulation of all mixtures of food products, without reference to their character, deleterious or otherwise, it will not be able to abolish the internal-revenue system very soon. It is not pretended that mixing cotton-seed oil with lard injures the lard in any degree, but that it merely takes the place of a certain amount of lard in the market, and thus lowers the price just as oleomargarine lowered the price of butter. The bill is therefore a protective measure, and must be carried through on protective principles. We cannot see any difference between this bill and one which should seek to put a clog on new inventions. The discovery that butter can be made from the fat of a slaughtered ox as easily as from the cream of a living cow was a great boon to mankind, and one which cannot be suppressed, although it may be temporarily crippled by legislation. The discovery that the sun's light and heat work the same result in the production of edible fats in the seed of the cotton plant as in the fruit of the olive or in the bodies of swine is akin to it, and is likewise a benefit to the human race. Why should Congress undertake to prevent the diffusion of this blessing? If the proposed bill does not prevent it, the measure will be useless to those who now clamor for it.

Another "State-rights" decision has been rendered by the Republican Justices of the United States Supreme Court. The Alabama Legislature last year passed a law requiring locomotive engineers to have licenses. An engineer employed by the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company, whose line extends beyond the State, neglected to get a license, and, upon being arrested for his neglect, sued out a writ of habeas corpus and got his case carried before the Supreme Court, his plea being that the act of the Legislature was in violation of that clause of the United States Constitution which confers upon Congress the power to regulate commerce among the States. The Court holds that, while it would be competent for Congress under this clause of the Federal Constitution to prescribe the qualifications of locomotive engineers for employment by carriers engaged in inter-State commerce, yet, as it had neglected to do so, the State of Alabama had the power to make such regulations as the one in question, and that the statute should stand, on the ground that "it is properly an act of legislation within the scope of the admitted power reserved to the State, to regulate the relative rights and duties of persons being and acting within its territorial jurisdiction, and intending to operate so as to secure for the public safety of person and property."

It is amusing to watch the applause with which the Blaine managers greet the campaign of the anti-Cleveland Democrats against the President. "Matt" Quay, the Republican boss of Pennsylvania, has taken the trouble to construct a table of delegates from the various States which foots up nearly enough anti-Cleveland men to prevent a two-thirds vote for the President, and he professes hope that the requisite number can be picked up from other States. The anti-Cleveland men in both parties are "banking" upon the two-thirds vote. The Republican Quays and the Democratic Hills alike admit that the President will have a large majority of the delegates, but they are trying desperately hard to figure out some way of preventing his getting two-thirds. This two-thirds rule is now more than half a century old, and it would seem as though it were about time to abolish it. Its first appearance was in the convention which renominated Jackson in 1832, when, pending the vote for a candidate for Vice-President, it was resolved "that two-thirds of the whole number of the votes in the convention shall be necessary to constitute a choice." During the ante-bellum period the slavery interest maintained this rule as an easy device for preventing the choice of a candidate objectionable to the South, but it has always been an undemocratic regulation, which survives only by force of inertia, and which ought to be done away with.

So far as the Democratic National Convention of 1888 is concerned, however, it is a matter of no consequence whether the two-thirds rule is abolished or not. The hopelessness of electing a third of the delegates against Cleveland is apparent at a glance when one examines the list which Boss Quay has made out. It is infinitely more likely that there will not be a vote against Cleveland in the Convention than that there will be a third of the delegates on that side. The only basis of an anti-Cleveland movement is the Hill outbreak in New York, and nobody familiar with the situation here believes that this State will send to the Convention a delegation opposed to the President's renomination. Outside of New York the Hill movement is almost invisible, and where it does attempt an appearance it is being quickly disposed of.

A stringent measure designed to prevent the use of money in nominating conventions and elections has been introduced in the Iowa Legislature. The bill provides that any person who votes fraudulently, or aids another to do so, either by threats or bribing or any other means, or who receives money or any other valuable thing, or the promise of it, for his vote, or even offers to vote in return for money or reward of any kind, or the promise of it, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and liable to fine of not less than $200 and imprisonment of not less than thirty days; also, that any person who tries, either by the use of money or the promise of it, or by any kind of entertainment, to get support for himself for office, either in a primary, or convention, or election, shall be liable to the same punishment; all assessments for any except the legitimate expenses of election are forbidden, and any person soliciting from a candidate "money, property, drinks, cigars, or any valuable thing," for the purpose of obtaining the votes of others for such candidate, shall not only be liable to the same punishment, but shall be disqualified to vote in the election. Incorporated employers are forbidden to influence in any manner, either personally or through any one acting for them, the votes of their employees, either in primaries, conventions, or elections, under penalty of a fine not less than $1,000 nor more than $5,000.

Dr. McGlynn has at last admitted to his followers that he has no expectation of being restored to his old pastorate, or in fact to any other pastorate in the Catholic Church. He declared on Sunday night that he could not get back if he would, and he would not if he could. He would have been much

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more frank and truthful had he made this statement months ago. Instead of doing so, he repeatedly assured his benighted followers that there was not only a chance but a strong probability that he would be restored. He went so far on the eve of election, in November last, to declare in the Academy of Music, that he had received private and trustworthy information that his case had been reconsidered at Rome, and that he was likely to be reinstated. There was not a word of truth in this, as any rational mind would have seen without the official contradiction which was immediately made, for the Catholic Church is not in the habit of "reinstating" its excommunicated priests who go about publicly after their excommunication shaking their fists at the Pope and all other of its authorities, and denouncing them as an "ecclesiastical machine." Henceforth McGlynn will devote himself to denunciations of the Pope, and possibly to "revelations" about other Church authorities,

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It appears to be generally believed on the Continent that the Pope has consented to mediate in Irish affairs, on which he now considers himself sufficiently well informed through the reports of Mgr. Persico. The Liberal Unionists have been flattering themselves for some time that such a gentlemanly, conservative man as the Pope is must be disgusted with the conduct of the Irish, and that the mission of the Duke of Norfolk, and the Queen's handsome present on his jubilee, must have confirmed him in his hostility to home rule, and made probable an early reprimand to the Irish clergy for meddling in politics. The latest reports are, however, that he is prepared to meddle in the matter only to the extent of recommending a partial adoption of Mr. Gladstone's scheme—that is, the concession to the Irish of a local legislature with more limited powers than Mr. Gladstone's was to have, and the retention of the Irish in an imperial Parliament in London.

The reception given in Dublin to Lord Ripon and Mr. Morley, besides being a welcome to them, has been a sort of counter demonstration, intended to neutralize the effects of that given some weeks ago to Lord Hartington and Mr. Goschen. This last was in no sense popular, and the recipients had to be carefully guarded by policemen during their stay. Any weight it had it derived from the number of professional men and landlords and bankers who took part in it, and the numbers of these classes were set out in the Conservative newspapers with amusing particularity. Mr. Goschen, in fact, went so far as to say in his speech that "wealth and intelligence" were everything in such matters, and numbers of no consequence. The Ripon-Morley demonstration, however, makes a very good comparative show in the matter both of wealth and intelligence. It has produced a remarkable list of professional men, merchants, and clergymen of all denominations also, and of course in numbers and enthusiasm it has outdone anything seen either in England or in Ireland for many years. The effect of this on the Tory press in London seems to have been somewhat stunning, mainly owing to the somewhat amusing theory which the editors have long been preaching, that the great bulk of the people of Ireland are hostile to the present agitation, but are terrorized into acquiescence by the National League, and have been made to elect the Parnellite members of Parliament by a system of intimidation. This is simply an expansion of Mr. Forster's notion that the troubles with which he had to contend were caused by a small class of "village ruffians," or petty local bullies, whose arrest and imprisonment would restore order and deliver the people from a cruel oppression. The most remarkable incident in the Ripon-Morley demonstration was, however, Lord Ripon's confession that he who, while belonging to to Mr. Gladstone's Government, had favored coercion, was now convinced that he was wrong. Lord Spencer, who had administered the Forster Coercion Act as Lord Lieutenant, made the same confession at Manchester on the same day. Of course the testimony of a man like Lord Spencer is worth more than that a mile of protests from the Hartingtons, Goschens, and those who have had no experience of Irish affairs.

The truth is, that the mere fact that the Government has to permit such a demonstration in the capital of the island makes its coercion policy ridiculous on its face. There is something farcical in trying to suppress an agitation supported by such manifestations as these, by inflicting sentences of one or two months' imprisonment on orators in other parts of the country, and locking up boys for kindling bonfires and news-venders for selling newspapers. To make such attempts as Mr. Balfour is engaged in successful, military force, used remorselessly and universally, is absolutely necessary. Men have to be shot by court-martial, and crowds dispersed by grape, and *all* newspapers suppressed or rigidly censured, and *all* orators silenced, and houses searched for papers at the discretion of the police. This is the way the Russians do it and the Turks do it and the Austrians used to do it, and the only way in which it was ever successfully done anywhere. The wonder is that Ruskin and Froude and other pessimistic politicians, who are mourning over the degeneracy of England, are not more saddened by the spectacle of nursery coercion which Mr. Balfour is affording them. It would make old Radetsky's sides ache with laughter if he were living.

English letters, no less than English and legal history and philosophy, have sustained a serious loss in the death of Sir Henry Maine. No man has in this century done so much to stimulate the study of the history of legal ideas, or has thrown so much light on the origin of political institutions. Much of his success was due to the charm of his style, which was remarkable for its lucidity, and he had in almost as great a degree as Tocqueville the gift of fascinating generalization. This led him in his last work on 'Popular Government,' when the conservative fibre in him had been hardened by years and infirmity, to make excursions into the region of contemporary politics, in which he did not always sustain his earlier fame for philosophic calm and breadth of judgment. But this book was so plainly a party pamphlet (it was, in fact, made up of contributions to a political magazine) that it did not lessen in any degree the weight of his authority in the fields which he had been the first to open, and his labors in which must keep his memory in undying honor.

The Paris *Temps* says that "people who ought to know" in France say that a remission of the duty of 30 per cent. now levied by us on imported foreign pictures would be injurious to French artists, because it would lead to the flooding of the American market with counterfeits, which would have a wide sale, because Americans know no better than to buy them, and because the American law offers no hindrance to their sale. The result would be after a while that French art would be utterly discredited in the eyes of connoisseurs, and the demand for French pictures would wholly cease. They suggest, as a remedy for this, that if the duty be abolished, the American Custom-house should require consular certificates of genuineness for all imported pictures. We fear, however, that before procuring this legislation, these anxious Frenchmen would have to convince a good many Congressmen that a forged picture is not just as good as a genuine one, and is not better if it be cheaper.

The story about the intention of the Mexican Government to place an export duty on ores has been as persistent in turning up in different and contradictory shapes, and has been as inherently improbable, as many another yarn telegraphed from that land where the imagination works so freely. First it was said to be a part of an English plot to interfere with American trade. This was soon denied, authoritatively, but was speedily followed by the assertion, which is the latest we have seen, that the duty was to be levied, and that it was at the instance of American capitalists who were to be benefited by it in some unknown way. As we say, the story is improbable on its face. Reference can only be to the ores of the precious metals, since Mexico produces an inappreciable quantity of any other kind. For the year 1885-86 her exports of metals other than gold and silver had a value of only $28,977. In the same year she sent out of the country gold and silver, in various forms, to the amount of $29,878,000. But Mexico can have no possible motive to tax the export of the precious metals. They are her chief medium of meeting her foreign obligations. For years they have constituted 75 per cent. of all her exports. Besides, she tried that last inheritance of the Spanish system—a duty on the exportation of money—long enough to find out its folly. It was abandoned only about a half dozen years ago, before the protests of houses engaged in foreign commerce. There is no likelihood whatever that it will be restored.

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WHAT WILL RUSSIA DO?

ALTHOUGH the publication of the Austro-German Treaty of Alliance by order of the parties to it shows clearly enough that the two Powers believe Russia to be entertaining designs more or less hostile to the European peace, the remarkable and characteristic speech in which Prince Bismarck explained the situation to the Reichstag on Monday has undoubtedly had the effect of assuring the European public that there is no immediate danger of war. But nothing could be more Bismarckian than the way in which this assurance was conveyed. What he said was, in effect, that he was determined to have peace even if he had to fight for it. He mentioned, as among the guarantees of peace, that if necessary he would put one million of men on the French frontier, and another million on the Russian frontier; and intimated that if anybody disliked his peace-preserving arrangements, he would let loose the "*furor Teutonicus*" on him. He announced the peaceableness of France with a very droll air of patronage, and produced the Czar's private assurances to himself, with a sort of mock reverence. For the Russian press he expressed the most serene contempt, but admitted that the French newspapers occasionally merited the attention of anybody who wished to know whether the French were likely to behave in a disorderly manner. It would, in fact, probably have been hard for the Chancellor to express greater contempt for French government and politics than is conveyed in the words that "the French press represents a real power, which we have to take into careful consideration." A country in which newspapers can bring on war is to him the abomination of desolation. The object of his whole discourse was, in fact, to let both France and Russia, and the whole world, know that if war broke out, it would be the greatest the world ever saw, and that Germany would not be the first to ask for peace. Of course, this is a terrible way to assure civilized men that they may pursue their industry with a tranquil mind; but it is Bismarck's way, and, as long as he lives, Europe will probably know no peace that is not guaranteed by 8,000,000 or 10,000,000 soldiers.

The most important passage in the speech, as bearing immediately on the existing situation, was, however, this:

"After 1885 a state of affairs arose in Bulgaria which we had no call to remedy by force of arms, but which cannot alter in theory the rights that Russia carried home with her from the Congress. Whether, should Russia desire forcibly to urge these rights, difficulties would arise, I know not, nor does it concern us in any way. We shall not support forcible measures, nor shall we advise their adoption. Moreover, we do not believe such an inclination exists. In fact, it is pretty certain it does not. If, however, Russia, by diplomatic means, proposes even the intervention of the Sultan, I shall consider it the duly loyal German policy to adhere purely to the provisions of the Berlin Treaty, from which, as far as I am concerned, the feeling of the Bulgarians cannot cause any departure. Bulgaria will not object with sufficient strength to plunge Europe for its sake from Moscow to the Pyrenees, from the North Sea to Palermo, into a war the issue of which nobody can foresee. Perhaps after such a war we should surely know what we had fought for. [Laughter.]"

If there be any intention on the part of Russia to force a quarrel now with Austria, if her massing of troops on the Galician frontier means anything but what Prince Bismarck suggests that it means—a piece of preparation for some still unforeseen European crisis or complication—the situation in Bulgaria is at the bottom of it. The Principality of Bulgaria was created by the Treaty of Berlin. It was, in the language of the Treaty, "constituted an autonomous and tributary principality under the suzerainty of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan." The Treaty further provided that "the Prince of Bulgaria shall be freely elected by the population and confirmed by the Sublime Porte, with the consent of the Powers." Now, the Bulgarians have not yet succeeded in providing themselves with a Prince under these conditions. Russia expected that inasmuch as it was to the victories of her armies that the Principality really owed its existence, the Bulgarians would accept an unrecognized protectorate from her, and permit the Russian agent at Sofia to play the part of the British "Residents" at the courts of the native princes in India; and that she would be allowed to nominate the Prince whom the population was, under the Treaty of Berlin, "freely to elect," and whom the Sultan was to approve and the Powers consent to.

All that was known of the Bulgarians before the war of 1877 justified this expectation. It was not supposed they could produce for many years to come either soldiers or politicians. They had figured for centuries in Turkish history as a race of patient, plodding, much-enduring peasants, without leaders or thinkers. The world was astonished, and Russia more than the rest of the world, to find that they had during the previous twenty-five years been furnished, mainly through the Roberts College at Constantinople, with an educated class large enough to supply plenty of orators, writers, politicians and soldiers to work the new constitution. Under this educated class the population proceeded to constitute a Bulgaria of its own. The Russian agents were set at naught or driven out, and a Prince was elected who never succeeded in getting either the approval of the Sultan or the consent of the Powers. He was forced to abdicate by Russian threats working on broken nerves, and another was put in his place under similar conditions. The Sultan still does not approve, and the Powers do not consent—Russia least of all; but what is to be done about it? If there is to be interference, it must be joint interference, or interference by one Power as the mandatory of the others. The Sultan is afraid to stir, owing to the horror with which Europe justly views the action of Turkish troops in Christian territory. Russia cannot interfere without being treated by Austria and England as an interloper and violator of the Treaty of Berlin. In the meantime, however, Bulgaria is increasing in wealth and prosperity and self-confidence, and is every year less and less inclined to brook any outside interference with her affairs, and the Czar is all the while exposed to the reproaches of his own people for the manner in which he has been ousted from what they consider his legitimate influence in the Balkan Peninsula.

It will be easily seen that this situation is for Russia a painful one, hard to endure. Prince Bismarck's speech does not offer any way out of it. All the comfort he proposes is that "if Russia calls on us to support, in our communications with the Sultan's Government, such of her claims as are compatible with the decisions of the Berlin Congress, I shall have no hesitation in doing so." But the only claim Russia can make "compatible with the decisions of the Berlin Congress" is that the Bulgarians shall elect a Prince to be approved by the Sultan and confirmed by the Powers. For the contingency of their refusing or neglecting to do so, the Berlin Congress made no provision at all, and this is why Russia is moody and bellicose. Moreover, if she ventured a conflict with Austria and Germany, she would have not only to face Germany and Austria but Bulgaria, which can undoubtedly put 50,000 good troops in the field, and Servia, which can put as many more that are just as good if well led, and Rumania, which can probably put 150,000 in the field that are better than either. All these principalities look on Russia now as the only enemy they have to fear, after having looked to her for two centuries as their one possible deliverer and friend. In addition to these, she would have to bear the whole brunt of the Austrian attack, and at least half that of Germany, even supposing France were to take the field as her ally; for it is part of the agreement that in case France intervenes, Italy shall assail her on the south with 300,000 men. A conflict of this kind, which would set the whole European continent on fire, and the like of which has not been seen since the overthrow of the first French Empire, is not one in which Russia is likely to enter without great hesitation, even if the Czar be as morbid as he is said to be, and "the war party" as influential with him as it is said to be.

It is quite true that all that Russia has to fear from the direct effects of the war is exhaustion, such as overtook her at the close of the Crimean war. She is not a commercial country, and has therefore no serious derangement of trade to fear. Her currency is simply irredeemable paper, which can be expanded indefinitely. Her population is mainly agricultural, and would therefore suffer little from war except through the drafts it would make on labor; but these drafts would be tremendous, for the losses of Russian armies in the field, owing to defective commissariat and medical arrangements, are usually enormous. Moreover, there is probably no country so secure against invasion. No conqueror would make any permanent gain by crossing her frontier. Both her capitals are practically secure against attack, which cannot be said of any other in Europe, except, perhaps, London.

But then it has to be borne in mind that if the Czar goes to war, it will not do to come

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out of it simply without loss of territory, and without having to pay a war indemnity, or having to submit to humiliating restrictions on his naval or military armaments, as in 1856. If he began it, it should be a war for the recovery of prestige which, in the eyes of the Russian people, is every day diminished by what is going on in the Balkan Peninsula. Every war which Russia has undertaken in eastern Europe since 1815 has had for its objects either the pushing of the frontier nearer to the Bosphorus, or the capture of Constantinople, or the erection in the peninsula, as a temporary expedient, of a series of vassal States, which should remain under Russian influence until she was ready to swallow them up. The wars of 1828, of 1853, and of 1877 all had these objects in view, and were all at their close apparently successful; that is, they either wrested territory from Turkey, or weakened Turkey so that her final break-up would be hastened. What is making the present crisis is the fact which is now becoming perfectly plain to the Russian court and army, and to that portion of the people which reads newspapers, that all these efforts have been literally in vain—that in making the attacks of the last fifty years on Turkey, Russia was literally, in the words of the French proverb, "working for the King of Prussia." The growth of Servia, Rumania, and Bulgaria under the fostering hand of Germany and Austria bids fair in a very short time to put an end to the vision, in which the imagination of every patriotic Russian has revelled ever since Peter the Great, of a Southern capital on the Bosphorus, and a revival of the Eastern Empire on a scale of which Constantine never dreamed. The Russian public are only just now waking up to this fact, and it is probably the most unpleasant fact in their history, the first apparently irretrievable political disaster.

The question, What is to be done about it? is a knotty one, but it is one which the Czar's advisers are probably every day asking themselves. Why troops should be concentrated in midwinter on the Austrian frontier is, of course, unless some action was in contemplation, hard to say, but it may be that it was simply due to that necessity for doing even meaningless things in times of perplexity to which puzzled people resort to relieve their nerves or gain time for thought. The conclusion which deliberation is sure to bring in this case, however, is, that unless the war ends in subjecting the whole Balkan Peninsula to Russian rule or Russian influence, it will have been waged in vain, and probably the Czar has no counsellor bold enough to tell him that any such result may safely be looked for. It will not do, when it is over, to turn to his subjects and tell them that they have at least lost nothing. On this occasion he would have to show them what they had gained.

INVESTIGATING THE READING STRIKE.

THIS is the time of year to look for contortions in the Legislature in behalf of Labor. There was a debate in the New York Senate a week ago on the subject of an appropriation to keep the convicts at work in the State prisons. It was as easy to discern the simulated madness of honorable members as it is to note the brief mania which seizes upon a herd of cattle when one of their number smells blood. First one and then another begins to paw the earth, and bellow, and run the horns into the ground, and "take on" at a terrible rate. After indulging in this pastime for a season they become rational again, and return to their grazing and chewing of cuds. This assumed insanity is liable to break out whenever two or three members of the Legislature or of Congress are gathered together in any public place. Congress is very much exposed to it. The resolution to investigate unlawful combinations of men, commonly called Trusts, to raise the prices of the necessaries of life, had to be amended so as not to include combinations of workingmen to raise wages. Nobody would have thought of including workingmen, but some member smelled blood and must needs paw up the ground for the edification of Labor, and all the rest must needs join for a brief space lest they be declared lacking in sympathy for workingmen. When in the House Mr. S. V. White wanted to inquire whether the Reading Railroad Company's failure to transport inter-State commerce satisfactorily was caused in any degree by combinations of men to prevent it from doing so, Mr. Anderson of Kansas, who ordinarily grazes in a rational bovine way, immediately dropped on his knees, ran his horn into the ground, and tossed up the sod in the most muscular fashion. Labor, in the remote Kansas district which Mr. Anderson represents, will undoubtedly take note of this spasm, and set it down much to the honorable gentleman's credit.

The unanimous vote to investigate the Reading strike by a special committee must have been partly given on the consideration that there is no way so effectual for curing human folly as to let it have its own way. The resolution adopted requires the Committee "to investigate forthwith the extent, cause, and effect upon inter-State commerce of the continued failure by the Reading Railroad Company to transport such commerce, and to report to the House, by bill or otherwise, for consideration at any time, such legislation as is necessary to secure to the public the regular and complete execution by a railroad company of its obligations to serve as a common carrier of inter-State commerce; and to investigate the differences existing in the Lehigh and Schuylkill region of Pennsylvania between the corporations mining coal and the miners, and, further, to investigate all facts relating to mining corporations and individual miners of anthracite coal in connection therewith, and all facts in relation to the matter, and report the same to the House with such recommendations as the Committee may agree upon."

"The extent, cause, and effect upon inter-State commerce of the continued failure by the Reading Railroad Company to transport such commerce!" Here is an assumption contrary to all the facts that the public know anything about. The history of the strike need not be recounted. It was owing to the prompt and energetic efforts of the Reading Company to perform its duties as a carrier of all commerce, both State and inter-State, that the strike began. The operatives who began the trouble insisted that freight should not be carried that had been handled by "scab" workmen. Everything that has since happened has followed logically, and swiftly, and inexorably from this premise. It is perhaps well that this fact should be put down in black and white, as it was by the Committee that investigated the Southwestern strike two years ago. That great *émeute* furnished an irresistible attraction to the demagogues in Congress. They lost all control of themselves at once. They must have an investigation by the Federal authority, and on a scale commensurate with the national dignity. They were allowed to have their own way. They found the facts to be more completely on the side of the "railroad monopolists" than the public had supposed they were. They found that Martin Irons and his crew were a lot of malefactors, and that civilized society could not be carried on in any country where their rules and practices were tolerated. The upshot of the investigation was to vindicate Jay Gould, the man of all others most obnoxious to Labor, and to rehabilitate him in the eyes of decent people, by whom, upon many grounds, he had been held in the greatest disesteem. So it will be in this Reading investigation, but with the difference that the managers of the Reading Railroad have no accumulated prejudice to contend against, as Gould had.

Mr. Rayner of Maryland has blossomed out as the champion and knight-errant of oppressed humanity in this business. He opened the debate by disclaiming the title of demagogue. This was the unconscious tribute of a trickster to the superiority of truth and reason. Then, by way of showing that he was no demagogue, Mr. Rayner charged that the Reading Company was opposing an investigation. Mr. O'Neill denied this, and asked what was Mr. Rayner's evidence of the fact. "We have the evidence," said the undaunted Rayner, "of 82,000 starving men turned out in the dead of winter with dependent families." Mr. O'Neill replied that that was not his question; he wanted to know what evidence there was that the Reading Company was opposing an investigation, adding that he knew the contrary to be true. Then Rayner "hunted his hole." He wanted to know why anybody should oppose it. Mr. O'Neill was ready for him again, and replied that nobody opposed it. But Rayner was not to be shut off in this way If he could not have anybody to fight, he could belabor the air, and so he did. "I know it is a hard fight," he said. "I know that monopoly, unscrupulous as to the methods it employs, is an enemy terrible to encounter. But in my humble experience I have never yet seen the day in the halls of legislation when honor, which has no price, or manhood, which knows no fear, could not drive it, like a skulking coward, from the field of battle."

The question came up incidentally whether

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inter-State commerce had any connection with the Reading trouble, so that Congress could properly take hold of it. Undoubtedly the Southwestern trouble had to do with inter-State commerce, since the Gould roads were operated in half-a-dozen States, and since the question was one really relating to the carrying of freight and passengers. The Reading case is essentially different because the difficulty is not about the carrying of freight, but about having any to carry. The road stands ready to transport all the goods offered, coal, flour, or other. The trouble began, as we have said, with the refusal of Mr. Rayner's clients to allow certain goods to be carried, and the insistence of the Reading Company that they should be carried. It is impossible, therefore, to see where Congress gets jurisdiction even to begin an investigation. If the rules of the body required every important inquiry about which there was a doubt, to be supported by affidavit setting out some fact upon which action could be taken, no such affidavit would have been forthcoming in this case. But, we say, let Mr. Rayner and Mr. Anderson of Kansas, a worthy rival, have their way. Mr. Anderson rather took the cap and bells when he objected to Mr. S. V. White's amendment that the Committee inquire whether there had been any unlawful combinations of men to prevent the Reading Company from transporting inter-State commerce, because "it savored too much of Wall Street"; Mr. Brumm, the Greenback-Labor Congressman of Pennsylvania, and the immediate representative of the coal-miners, having accepted that amendment.

ENGLISH COPYRIGHT FOR AMERICAN AUTHORS.

Mr. Brander Matthews contributed to the *New Princeton Review* for last September an interesting exposition of the nature and extent of the piracies to which American authors have been subjected by certain publishers in England. He took the trouble to examine the publishers' lists contributed to the 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' for 1885, and the result, as set out in his article, affords very entertaining reading, except, perhaps, to those American authors who, like their English brethren (according to Mr. Lowell's witty remark concerning the community of books between England and America), "are not so sensitive as they should be to the doctrine of universal benevolence." The abundant examples collected by Mr. Matthews show that not only are many American authors reprinted without so much as a "by your leave," but (which is a more serious grievance) that certain English publishers not only do not hesitate to alter the titles of works so reprinted, but unscrupulously change and mangle even the very text of the stolen book, so that an author can scarcely recognize the child of his brain. After the publication of his article, Mr. Matthews applied to Mr. Samuel L. Clemens for facts concerning English reprints of his books. This drew from the latter a private letter; but, having meantime read the article referred to above, he appended what he calls a "public" postscript of considerable length and written in characteristic "Mark Twain" humor. Mr. Matthews replied in an open letter, and the three productions have been printed, under the title used by Mr. Matthews for his first article ("American Authors and British Pirates"), in the *New Princeton Review* for January.

Mr. Clemens writes much that is funny, but the substance of the serious portions of his letter and postscript can be briefly indicated. Admitting that such American books as were reprinted in England before a certain date, after which our authors could secure a *quasi* copyright in that country, had "suffered piracy without help," he asserts that five times as many English books had been pirated on our side of the water, and that, therefore, "the one fact offsets the other, and the honors are easy—the rascalities, I mean." But he characterizes the examples given by Mr. Matthews of earlier English piracies as "ancient history, and, properly and righteously, out of court, . . . a bitter grievance which passed out of this world and into its eternal grave more than fifteen years ago"; while "such of those American books as were issued after England allowed us copyright, and yet suffered piracy," Mr. Clemens holds, "suffered it by their authors' own fault, not England's nor anybody else's," because England furnishes the American author what he calls a "perfect remedy."

Mr. Clemens fails, however, to make the perfection of the remedy clear, nor is he at all lucid in his explanations as to how the remedy is to be obtained or applied. On the first page of his paper the reader is informed that "to-day the American author can go to Canada, spend three days there, and come home with an English and Canadian copyright which is as strong as if it had been built out of railroad iron," while on the last page he says of the English law that it is "a law which gives us absolutely unassailable and indestructible copyright at a cost of not a single penny, not a moment of time, not an iota of trouble, not even the bother of asking for it"; and the circumstances under which such copyright is secured, he says, "are quite simple and explicit, and quite easy to inform one's self about." Setting out by way of comparison the details essential to securing copyright in the United States, he exclaims: "What do you have to do in order to get the same book copyrighted in England? You are hampered by no bothers, no details of any kind whatever. When you send your manuscript to your English publisher, you tell him the date appointed for the book to issue here, and trust him to bring it out there a day ahead. Isn't that simple enough? No letter to any official, no title-page to any official, no fee to anybody; and yet that book has a copyright on it which the Charleston earthquake couldn't unsettle." Two years ago Mr. Clemens stated before the Senate Committee on Patents that the American author could get in England "as perfect a copyright as it was possible for a Government to give," and that this copyright was as strong for forty-two years as one granted to a native English author, and that it was quite easy to get —"there was no difficulty about that." But when asked by what process the American author could secure such copyright, his answer was: "I have been through so many processes that I hardly know how to explain it." He has now published a veritable "Mark Twain" explanation of the process, after reading which no one will twit Mr. Clemens—as he does his opponent—with being a lawyer.

Mr. Matthews's reply is entertaining, judicial, and to the point. After setting himself right as to the motive of his article, he adds to his previous illustrations a number of examples of the piracy and mutilation of recent American books by English and Canadian reprinters. He analyzes the two English decisions upon which alone copyright is secured to foreign authors, and deduces the opinion, which is, we think, the only safe one, that, "if an American author wishes to make sure of an English copyright, there is only one course for him to pursue: he must publish his book in the United Kingdom before he publishes it in America, and he must be in the British dominions when it is so published in the United Kingdom." Admitting that this British law is a good thing as far as it goes, Mr. Matthews holds that it does not go far enough, and that it does not go so far as Mr. Clemens thinks. He points out that while it may be an easy thing for the latter to make a trip to Canada, it does not follow that it is equally easy for every author, and that it certainly is not easy for a poor author who may chance to live in Florida or in Texas. Prior publication in England, also, while an easy thing for authors well known, is not easy for the unknown author sending out his first book. While Mr. Matthews seems to think that a contributor to one of the leading American magazines which is published in London a day or two before it appears in New York, might secure the protection of the English law by taking a monthly trip to Canada (a requirement amounting to a prohibition), he points out that it is obviously impossible that weekly journals or newspapers should have prior publication in England, and that their contents, therefore, cannot be protected from the British pirate; so that even under Mark Twain's "perfect" law, his own book 'Innocents Abroad' could not have been protected in England, having been published originally as letters to American newspapers. "The remedy for the present deplorable state of affairs," Mr. Matthews concludes, "is to change the law" in both countries. "England has taken the first step. Our turn it is now to advance along the path of honesty and justice. England will meet us half way."

Mr. Clemens's assertion that he has, by virtue of his three days' residence in Canada, secured copyright in that country as well as in England, is not noticed by Mr. Matthews. But if he has any such copyright, he certainly does not obtain it, as he states, without the payment of a fee, for registration is essential to obtaining copyright in Canada, and a fee of $1 is charged for each entry. More-

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over, a copyright is not registered until the author has deposited two copies of his book, and unless such deposit is made the author is not entitled to the benefit of the Canadian Copyright Act; and, furthermore, it is a condition of obtaining copyright, according to this act, that the work in question "shall be printed or published, or reprinted and republished, in Canada," and all of these stipulations apply with equal force to a book which may have been previously copyrighted in the United Kingdom. If a visit to Canada is essential in order to secure protection in England, it is clear that it would be necessary to have something to prove that the author had been upon Canadian soil at a certain time, requiring, at least, a notary's certificate, demanding a fee. And while the English law does not require registration in order to obtain a copyright, it is necessary to register such copyright in order to maintain a suit in court to protect it; and a deposit of a copy of the book for the British Museum is compulsory, within one month, while demands for copies from four other libraries must be complied with when made. All of which it is not so much easier to do than it is to satisfy the requirements of the American copyright law, as Mr. Clemens seems to believe. As Mr. Matthews very justly says: "The method by which an American may secure copyright in England is not a simple registration, for which a single fee is paid and a single certificate given: it is an elaborate mercantile operation, to be established by evidence, written and parol."

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF A UNIVERSITY.

As usual, many topics in President Eliot's Report on the condition of Harvard College for the past year invite comment. One might dwell on the seeming paradox that, while more than a million dollars has flowed in through the medium of gifts, almost every branch of the University suffers from inadequate endowment; or on the caprices of benevolence, which provides inordinate support for needy students, while neglecting the claims of the professorial body to a juster compensation—which recognizes the humane aspects of the Medical School and shuts its eyes to those of the Dental School, equally engaged in the gratuitous reduction of suffering. These, however, are standing themes. The novel discussions which we annually expect from the head of the oldest university in the land, relate this year to efforts made to raise the level of instruction in English in the schools which feed the college—not Harvard alone, but all colleges—and to enable the same schools to teach, in some form or other, the rudiments of science.

The importance of these endeavors, extending over a dozen years, will not be underrated by any thoughtful person, least of all by professional educators. They have met with a fair measure of success, but the report of progress will not be closed for many a day. We shall content ourselves with recommending to the general attention President Eliot's remarks upon them. Half a page devoted to intercollegiate athletics has for us a greater momentary interest, in that the purpose is manifested to abate a growing evil about which too little has been said. What goes before is retrospective; in this section of the Report lies the germ of a future policy.

Nothing could be better, as a condensed statement, than the following words of the Report, after an approving enumeration of the various sports pursued with ardor by the students:

> "Three of these sports," says President Eliot, "namely, foot-ball, base-ball, and rowing, are liable to abuses which do not attach to the sports themselves so much as to their accompaniments under the present system of intercollegiate competitions. These abuses are: extravagant expenditure by and for the ball-players and the crews; the interruption of college work which exaggerated interest in the frequent ball-matches causes; betting; trickery condoned by a public opinion which demands victory; and the hysterical demonstrations of the college public over successful games. These follies can best be kept in check—they cannot be eradicated—by reducing the number of intercollegiate competitions to the lowest terms. The number of these competitions is at present excessive from every point of view. Wrestling, sparring, and foot-ball—games which involve violent personal collision—have to be constantly watched and regulated, lest they become brutal."

The development of this perfectly just indictment would bring to view four main tendencies, which must be deprecated by every friend alike of the higher education and of morality. One is towards the prolongation of the boyish or puerile stage which ought finally to be cast away when the young man enters college. We do not mean that animal spirits should be left behind, but that the point of view from which life has hitherto been regarded should be radically changed. Intellectually, the student should feel himself to have come of age as soon as matriculated, and should perceive the propriety or necessity of putting away childish things. Sports need not be abandoned, but just as they will no longer be marbles or peg-top, so they should be subordinated to the main object for which men go to college. The dignity of the institution should beget a corresponding dignity and self-restraint and steady application in the beneficiary. The unspeakable importance of these years for the cultivation of the faculties and the formation of character in preparation for the struggle for existence, should sober and steady all but those already corrupted by the taint of wealth. But it cannot be denied that childishness is fostered by intercollegiate contests, not only in the shape of "hysterical demonstrations over successful games," but in giving such a predominance to the athletic interest that recreation and enjoyment, or the having what is called a good time, becomes the most potent attraction which a college education holds out. It is a significant fact, too, that the rise and growth of the highly organized and technical forms of sport at Harvard has been coincident with the revival of secret societies—the permanent fountains of puerility—and of hazing.

The second tendency in order is towards the erection of a false standard of superiority among colleges according as one or other "carries off the cup." Harvard, for example, a purely educational foundation, whose glories antedate the advent of base-ball and the Rugby game, is regarded as humbled if Yale or Princeton or Columbia comes off first in any given contest or series of contests. This feeling is not put on, but is perfectly serious among students. You will find them in their local papers discussing the harm that will befall the college if it continues to win only second and third prizes. The athletes of the preparatory schools, it is said, will instinctively be drawn to the college which has achieved the highest distinction in their line. It has even been charged lately that a systematic attempt was making to recruit from a certain famous New England school for one college at the expense of another by means of a subsidized local journal—if our memory is not at fault; of course through undergraduate, not official intrigue. We have also an idea that the faculties of the smaller colleges are afraid to grapple with the evil of abnormal athletics because they do really apprehend a loss of patronage. But be this as it may, it is clear that nothing could be more opposed to the efficiency of the college training than an habitual substitution, for pride in the intellectual standing and ample equipment of Alma Mater, of pride in her muscular supremacy. Do we not, in fact, see colleges which are lagging in the race of improved methods and enlarged scope of instruction, hug the delusion that this is offset by the trophies of the sporting-ground? Let us, then, remark here that all the trophies of this sort that Harvard has ever won by land or sea, are as dust in the balance compared with the simple fact that her President's annual Report is out of sight the most weighty, influential, and eagerly anticipated educational document published in America.

The third tendency may be briefly dismissed because there will be no dispute about it. The intercollegiate games bring the college world down to the level of the professional gambler. It is incontestable that students whose minds are constantly filled with the thought of intercollegiate rivalry at sports, follow with the greatest zest the course of the professional matches all over the country, turn to them first in the morning paper, make them the staple of their conversation. This is bad enough, but unavoidably they catch the tone of these vulgar performances, they practise or are on their guard against "trickery condoned by public opinion," and above all they fall easily into habits of betting on the result. The ill-feeling thus engendered, the charges of foul play, unfair umpiring, spying, concealment, lying, are disgustingly visible on the grounds or in the echoes of the college press. No man ever felt elevated by witnessing such encounters, and their degrading influence speaks both to the eye and to the understanding.

Great masses of young men cannot thus be brought together with professional excitement and manners without abusing the opportunity in other ways. Nor can parents reflect without wincing on the possibilities which attend the transfer of a mob of students away from their habitual surveillance to a

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distant city, there to remain, perhaps, over night, in a state of the highest elation or depression—were it merely innocent and not affected by money at stake on the result of the game. Neither, finally, can this transportation take place without a large pecuniary outlay, which falls upon the parents, whether they can afford it or not. Add this sum to the cost of sustaining crews and teams, and to what is lost in gaming and in vice, and we have a potent factor of extravagance in ordinary college life the fourth tendency of those we have deprecated.

Much more might be said if we had the space. We regret that President Eliot should imply that the intercollegiate competitions cannot be absolutely abolished. Nothing is simpler than an edict to this effect, and we believe that it is Harvard's mission to utter it. She ought boldly to take the position that beyond furnishing ample facilities for in-door and out-door exercise, for the perfection of the physical man, the college has nothing to do with athletics unless to supervise them. Its business is to shape the human intellect. Neither should it be moved by the argument—sound or unsound, matters not—that without the intercollegiate meetings the local fondness for athletics would die out. Again, we say, this is no concern of an institution which has done all that money and science can do to tempt men to exercise. But it is absurd that a thousand undergraduates cannot among themselves find all the competition necessary for any good end of sport. The rubbish about "records" needs to be put aside. It is not incumbent on any college to see that its students jump one foot higher, run one minute faster, or in any other way approximate a receding standard of physical excellence. Health may be attained, and sound constitutions, by moderate, well-directed exertion without thought of any competitor. So long as this is so, the duty of the college is to turn the student's thoughts to things spiritual; to encourage early manliness, as the entrance age is steadily rising; to discourage respect for the non-essentials of college life above its main excuse for being; and to put an end to all occasions for unfriendliness and bitterness between institutions whose only emulation should be to turn out, at the least possible cost, the highest type of civilized man.

VOLAPUK.—I.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI, January.

"HAS Volapük come to stay?" asked the *Nation* some time ago. That remains to be seen; but at any rate Schleyer's invention has come to make quite a visit, and it may be of interest to submit the new arrival in the family of languages to some inspection. Its rapid growth, and the favorable reception it has met with in high quarters, give it a claim to have its merits or defects submitted to examination.

Johann Martin Schleyer, a German, and a retired Catholic priest, is the last in a series of language-makers that runs back beyond Leibnitz. For Leibnitz, in his 'De Arte Combinatoria' (1666), gave an account of Becher's system, and Becher was preceded about a year by Delgarno (1660, 1661). Leibnitz briefly describes Becher's system as proceeding upon the following plan: By each word in an alphabetically arranged Latin lexicon a number would be placed. In any other language a dictionary was to be prepared with the numbers following consecutively, as in the Latin lexicon, and by each number would be found the equivalent of the Latin word; *e. g.*, if *bellum* had 500 by it, 500 would have *war* by it in an English lexicon, *Krieg* in a German one, and so on. To read this number-language one would simply look in his lexicon for the words attached to the numbers. To write it, one would need to know Latin and to look up the proper numbers in his Latin lexicon; or, if he did not know Latin, he would be obliged to have in his own language an alphabetically arranged dictionary with the proper numbers attached; for, of course, his other lexicon, being prepared with consecutive numbers as the only guide through it, would not avail him here. It does not need a Leibnitz to point out the extreme clumsiness and glaring deficiencies of such a system. The great German philosopher himself proposed a scheme of which he said that if it were rightly and skilfully carried out, his *scriptura universalis* would be easy to learn, common to all, and capable of being read without a lexicon, "simulque imbibetur," adds Leibnitz, "omnium rerum fundamentalis cognitio"—certainly a desirable characteristic, especially in a system easy to learn. But as Leibnitz made nothing practical of it, though greatly interested in the problem of a world-language, no doubt to do it "rightly and skilfully" was the reef on which the idea was wrecked.

In 1668 appeared one of the most famous of all the attempts to counteract Babel's confusion of tongues. In that year Bishop Wilkins published his 'Essay toward a Real Character and a Philosophical Language,' having received the hint from Delgarno's 'Ars Signorum,' or, 'Character Universalis et Lingua Philosophica' (1660). The treatise of the English Bishop is known to us from the detailed account of it given by Monboddo and Prof. Max Müller. But even a hasty survey shows that such a scheme would never do for the wayfaring man, even though he were no fool. If we are ever to have a language common to all the world, it would seem that it must at least possess the following characteristics:

(1.) It must not be intricate. Simplicity is absolutely essential. If a philosophical turn of mind is required for its understanding, it is doomed.

(2.) It must be in a character easily written and easily read.

(3.) It must reject sounds that are difficult or impossible to any large portion of mankind. Our *th* sound would be altogether inadmissible (and Volapük has not admitted it), and to base distinctions of meaning upon such a difference as we make in this sound (*cf. though* and *throw*), would be utterly out of the question.

(4.) It must be brief enough in the statement of its principles to give it a decided advantage over any widely spoken language.

(5.) Of course it must possess uniformity. No one would deliberately invent exceptions to his rules. Enough of these may spring up in the course of time.

Let us test Volapük by these principles.

As to brevity, hardly any one can fail to be satisfied. Spielmann's Volapük-Almanach gives a very good outline of the grammar in 16 pages. Schleyer's Mittlere Grammatik (8th ed.) has only 63 pages for the grammatical portion, and Seret's Volapük grammar for those who speak English has only 59 pages of grammar, the rest of the 420 pages being taken up with the vocabularies. The world can surely afford to learn this much in order to have a medium of communication between all mankind.

In simplicity it has some striking advantages. The large majority of its root-words are monosyllabic. Diphthongs are not allowed. The definite article is eliminated. Exceptions and irregularities there are none. A German inventor did not forget, of course, to simplify the matter of gender. The three oblique cases, gen., dat., and accus., are formed by appending to the word the first three vowels respectively, *a*, *e*, *i*. The plural adds *s*. Thus *foot* is declined *fut*, *futa*, *fute*, *futi*, plural, *futs*, *futas*, *futes*, *futis*. And this is the whole of the inflection of nouns.

The agent (*maker*, *creator*, Germ. *Macher*) adds *-el* to the root-word. It would be *er*, except that Schleyer has avoided *r* out of consideration for children, old people, and the Chinese. Adjectives append *-ik*. The comparative and superlative endings are *um* and *ün*; and as *m* precedes *n*, it belongs to the comparative, which precedes the superlative. Adverbs at first followed the German method, and did not differ from the adjectives, except that an adverbial ending *o* was used if clearness required it. The Volapük Congress held at Munich last August declared in favor of making *all* adverbs end in *o*, though the rule is not an imperative one. The personal pronouns all begin with *o* and vary the final consonant. With *m* for *masc.*, *f* for *fem.*, and *s* (German *sächlich*) for *neut.*, it is easy to learn *om*, *of*, and *os* for *he*, *she*, and *it*. *On* is adopted for German *man*, French *on*. *Ob* stands for *I*, *i. e.*, to *o* is added the first consonant. Then *oma*, *ome*, *omi* mean *of me*, *to me*, *me*. The poss. prons., being adjectives, end in *ik*: *omik*, *ofik*, *osik* therefore mean *his*, *her*, *its*. The nine digits all end in *l*, and the *l* is preceded by the eight vowels in order *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, *ä*, *ö*, and *ü*, except that after 6 (*mäl*), 7 is *vel*, which strikes us as a slight defect and a departure from uniformity. Volapük grammar opens with the eight vowels above given, and Schleyer frequently uses a, e, i, instead of 1, 2, 3, to number his paragraphs. If he had let his numerals proceed through 8 without any break in the succession of vowels, it would have been a gain. As he has it, one must remember that there is an arbitrary break in the order, and that it occurs after 6. If the break had occurred after 5, there would even then have been some method visible; for the division would have been made between the five simple and the three modified vowels. One cannot help wondering, too, whether Schleyer had any system in his mind in selecting the initial consonants for his numerals. His words are *bal*, *tel*, *kil*, *fol*, *lul*, *mäl*, *vel*, *jöl* (pronounced as *schöl* would be in German), *zül*. Suppose he had employed the first nine consonants in Volapük (b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, i; the Munich Congress adopted h instead of the "rough breathing" with which Schleyer at first began), followed by the vowels in like order, with *a* repeated as the vowel for 9; the memory would be strongly supported. For 10, 20, 30, etc., *s* is added to the words for 1, 2, 3, etc. *Nought*, *zero*, though not given in the grammar, we find to be *nosa-num*, *i. e.*, *no* as a negative, *s* as neuter ending, *a* as genitive ending, and *num* as the word for *number*, so that *negation's number* is Volapük's conception of zero.

When we come to the verb, we find only a fraction over five pages given to it in Spielmann. Schleyer has about eighteen pages, and Seret twenty-nine and a half. Some things about Schleyer's treatment are admirable. The infinitive ends in *-ön*. For the present, imper-

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fect, perfect, pluperfect, future, and future perfect, the vowels a, ä, e, i, o, and u are respectively prefixed to the stem. If no vowel is prefixed, the tense is understood to be the present. In the passive voice *p* is prefixed to the proper vowel for any given tense. Hence, if *sanön* means *to cure*, (a)sanob = *I cure*, pasanob, *I am cured*, posanof, *she will be cured*, pesanoms, *they* (masc.) *have been cured*. So far, we could ask nothing better in a verb-system based on the synthetic principle. Does Volapük recognize any need for duplicating the above tenses by having a progressive form for each, as we have in English? *Penön* means *to write*. Can the new language make the distinction between *I shall write* and *I shall be writing*? If we go by Schleyer, we find nothing satisfactory. Seret speaks of an *aorist active* in all verbs, and seems to expect us to know exactly what that means. We find that each of the six tenses may have an aoristic form, and at once, on the basis of ἔγραφον, *I was writing*, and ἔγραψα, *I wrote*, we think this "aorist" in Volapük must denote the forms *I write*, *I wrote*, etc., as opposed to *I am writing*, *I was writing*. Seret gives a number of examples, in which the *i* that denotes this idea in Volapük is rendered by the adverbs *usually, constantly, always, steadfastly, uninterruptedly, incessantly:* so that *aipenom* may mean *I write usually*, *I write constantly*, etc. When we turn to Spielmann's account of this *i* formation, we find that he agrees with Schleyer in calling it "die Dauerform (Durativ)," and we at once think of the progressive forms; but when he explains the formation by adding that it denotes the indefinite time of an action, or a customary action (*die Gepflogenheit einer Handlung*), we feel that we are tossed back to the other horn of our dilemma; he translates the forms by *stets* and *beständig*. Seret gives the following three sentences as instances of this usage: "Much happens against the expectation of men." "Yet all winters have brought cold." "Every war the noble philanthropist will have to repent." This sort of treatment reminds us, on the *lucus-a-non* principle, of Schleyer's statement that his language is "very clear and definite in expression, admitting no uncertainties or confusions of meaning"; and of his exhortation, "Let every one always express himself so simply, concisely, and clearly, that all intelligent inhabitants of the globe can understand his words." When this happens—when obscurity of thought and expression is done away with—we shall have an intellectual millennium. Unfortunately the Volapük verb does not seem to us very much adapted to hastening this happy state of things.

In addition to the twelve indicative tenses as given above, Schleyer has subjunctive, conditional, optative, imperative, infinitive, participle, and supine, each with the full array of twelve tenses, active and passive. Not that these are all put down in the grammar in every instance, but enough samples are given to lead to the conclusion that every mood is to have its twelve tenses. There is also an imperative participle, with the renderings "be a loving one," and "be, being loved." We are furnished with a Gerundivum, "one, that *must* be loved"; and a Gerundium, "*it* is to love, one must love (it)." Reflexive, reciprocal, and impersonal verbs are provided in both voices. There is also an intransitive passive, examples of which are (Seret, p. 52, end): "*pagolos*—going, is getting done. *pagolom*—*it* is getting gone (in: one goes that road, the road is getting gone)." The optative has two forms, a mild form ending in *-ös*, and a stronger form in *-öx* (though one of the numerous little handbooks speaks of this as "the milder" form). The imperative is likewise subdivided: the ordinary form ends in *-öd;* the stronger, in *-öz*, called by Schleyer *der Jussiv*. The Volapük optative was constructed to be what its name denotes, a wishing mood. But as expressions of wish naturally shade off into those of will, it is no surprise to find the treatment of these two moods blended, and some of the books treat as imperative what others count as optative: and we even find the form in *-öx* spoken of as a potential. We have, then, for expressions of wish and of will, a climax ascended by four steps: *-ös*, *-öx*, *-öd*, and *-öz*. Each of these four, we are to bear in mind, is capable of forming twelve tenses active and passive, with six forms in the singular (*I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *one*), and four in the plural, of each tense!

The Greek verbal system with 507 possible forms, as estimated by Curtius, is usually regarded as rather formidable. Curtius calls the 891 forms reckoned as possible in Sanscrit, "a gigantic number." But his countryman has invented a system of conjugation in which *over half a million* of forms are possible from almost any transitive verb! The Athens Ἑστία gives the exact number as 504,440, but comforts us with the assurance that all these forms can be taught *within five minutes*—not that this is so, at all. Here is anything but brevity, whatever may be said for this colossal system as regards uniformity and simplicity.

ADDISON HOGE.

THE WAR CRISIS ON THE CONTINENT.

PARIS, January 27, 1888.

EVERY year now brings its war panic. These great waves of alarmed patriotism and of national jealousy seem to come over Europe as regularly as the great atmospheric changes of the seasons. It will be so as long as we have a system of armed peace as onerous as war itself. The slightest incident which brings into contact the great latent masses of electricity, seems the beginning of the impending storm. The latest war panic has not been produced by direct contact between France and Germany; this time the two opposing forces have been Germany and Russia. Since the events which have recently taken place in Bulgaria, the hostile feelings of Russia towards Germany have had almost free play. Russia, whether she is right or wrong, feels that she has been cheated by the Treaty of Berlin. She counted upon a sort of supremacy in the peninsula of the Balkans; she has lost this supremacy by a succession of blunders, and she now sees that Bulgaria, which she meant to be a mere dependency, is assuming airs of independence, and, if it cannot be independent, is drawn towards Austria's sphere of influence. The old alliance of the three emperors is a thing of the past; instead of it we see an alliance of two emperors only, and the third emperor remains in a sullen isolation, and obeys more and more the influence of the Panslavist orthodox party.

If there had been, a few months ago, a Government in France capable of forming secret alliances, the temptation would have been very great in Russia as well as in France. If Russia has her Panslavists, France has her radicals, who advocate openly an alliance with Russia. Gen. Boulanger did not make much mystery of his tendencies and his projects. At the time of the Presidential election, Jules Ferry was denounced by the extremists as the instrument of Prince Bismarck, as the slave of the German Chancellor.

There is no doubt that the French people desire the continuation of peace. They have a vague, unreasoning, instinctive sympathy for Russia; and the reason of it is that there are really no points of contact, and, therefore, no differences between the two nations. I remember that even during the Crimean war this sympathy existed. The Crimea was very remote; our officers and soldiers were often irritated at the English; they only saw the Russians after the taking of Sebastopol, when peace was made. The war party, which is a very small minority in the country, plays upon their feelings; it represents the Russians as all ready to take arms against Germany, and to continue the war until France has had time to reconquer Alsace and Lorraine. In Russia the Panslavists do something of the same sort. They believe that, if a war arose between their country and Germany, France would be forcibly drawn in, and, as was once said, "les chassepots partiraient tout seuls." The difficulties of an alliance, however, between France and Russia are obvious; the circumstances are not at all the same on our frontier and on the Russian frontier. If a war broke out between Germany and France, and if France should be obliged, by treaty, to begin military operations, her mobilization would be ended in a few days, as well as the German mobilization, while the Russian mobilization would take weeks and months. Germany would have time to throw the bulk of her forces on France, and perhaps to strike decisive blows, before commencing the struggle with Russia.

I do not believe there is anything like a treaty between France and Russia; but, if there is no treaty, there can be between two governments a sort of understanding, a mutual confidence, a state which allows each to give and to receive advice. The adversaries of a common action between France and Russia have always maintained that there is no equality between the risks which these countries would run in case of war; that in order to produce some equality, Russia must make a sort of mobilization in time of peace, so as to be able, if war is declared, to begin at once offensive operations of some magnitude. The system of armed peace and of hasty mobilizations will oblige the Powers which do not control many railways, and which cannot in consequence mobilize rapidly, to locate their armies near the frontiers in time of peace. It is difficult to know exactly the movements of the Russian troops. According to the temper of the official press in Berlin and in Vienna, these movements are more or less threatening; the Russian press tries, of course, to reduce their importance to a minimum. Still, enough is known to enable us to state that Russia has taken, in a military sense, important precautionary measures.

All military operations in the valley of the Danube and in Poland are impossible, or, to say the least, extremely difficult at this time of year; but we may expect in the spring to see the development of the Russian policy. Meanwhile, Germany is taking its precautions; Italy has replaced Russia in the triple alliance; the journey of Crispi to Friedrichsruhe marked with a sort of ostentation the character of the new alliance. The relations of France and Italy have become more difficult; the plenipotentiaries who went to Rome for the renewal of a treaty of commerce have not yet succeeded in their undertaking. The incident of the Consul at Florence caused at one moment great uneasiness; it seems now that nothing will come of it, but it has raised indirectly the question of Tunis and of the French protectorate in that province. The Treaty of the Bardo did not put an end to the treaties made at various times between the Bey of Tunis and sundry European Powers. The French protectorate of

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Tunis has not yet been fairly recognized by Italy, nor by any other Power, and fresh difficulties may arise at any moment from this situation. It is assuredly singular and painful to see Italy, which owes so much to the French arms, taking deliberately her place in an alliance which, though it professes to be made simply in the interest of peace, is known to be made also for war and in view of all the eventualities that may arise from a struggle between Germany and France, as well as between Germany and Russia.

In this extraordinary state of things, in this painful suspense and dread of the future, it is not surprising if all eyes in Europe are turned towards England. What will Great Britain do? In which direction will she gravitate? Will it be towards the triple constellation of Prussia, Austria, Italy? Will she obey her instinctive fear and hatred of Russia? Will she hesitate and refuse to give her moral support to the German power, which is becoming too predominant and too absorbing? Lord Randolph Churchill's journey in Russia would not have attracted so much attention if these questions were not in people's minds. It is well known in England that Lord Randolph Churchill had no diplomatic mission; it is even whispered that his relations with the members of the Cabinet which he has left have become somewhat strained. The reasons for which he left the present Administration are still somewhat obscure. The apparent reason was his desire to reduce the expenses of the army and the navy; the circumstances required large expenses, in the opinion of Lord Salisbury, who does not wish to adopt under all circumstances a policy of non-intervention in European affairs. At the time when Lord Randolph left the Cabinet there was a strong anti-Russian movement in England. The conduct of Russia towards Prince Alexander, the young hero of Slivnitza, was denounced in the strongest terms; Lord Randolph Churchill probably became afraid that England would again drift into a war with Russia, and a war for the sake of Bulgaria seemed to him too Quixotic.

The Bulgarian agitation soon subsided after Prince Bismarck had thrown cold water on the Bulgarian sympathizers in Germany. Lord Randolph Churchill had left the Cabinet a little too soon; he is probably not undesirous to join it again. His journey to Russia was undertaken merely in order to show that he does not adopt the old Palmerstonian policy of systematic opposition to Russia. Lord Randolph is a Conservative of a new school; he understands the temper of the new House of Commons; he knows that the extension of the suffrage has given a predominant power—I will not say to democracy, but to the lowest strata of the middle classes. The new electors care little for the affairs of Europe as long as England is not directly threatened in her interests. Even the possession of Constantinople has become a second-rate question in their eyes; since the opening of the Suez Canal, Constantinople is aside from the highroad to the East.

I do not pretend to defend this contracted policy, which some people would call too narrow, too selfish, too improvident; but whoever studies the tone of the English press and of the English Parliament must see that England, having so much on her hands, has made what is called in France "la part du feu." There are many questions which in old times would have stirred England, and which now leave her quite indifferent. Bismarck once said that he would not have the bones of a single Pomeranian grenadier broken for Bulgaria; many English statesmen, if they do not speak so frankly, feel somewhat the same way. What can the little English Army do among the nations in arms in Europe? The time is past when it could weigh heavily in the balance of fortune. It is not to be wondered at if Lord Randolph Churchill has tried to impress on the Russian mind the belief that Russia will not always find England opposed to her designs—if he has sown the germ of a new *modus vivendi* between two Powers which, if divided, give to Germany the hegemony of Europe, and, if united, maintain an equilibrium of forces which has always been thought essential, from the time of Charles V. to the time of Napoleon.

THE FINANCIAL RELATIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

DUBLIN, January 9, 1888.

THE financial relations between Ireland and Great Britain constitute one of the difficulties to be dealt with in the settlement of the home-rule question. To Ireland there are the dangers (1) that, in readjusting these relations, a mere matter of business and figures may be overlooked in the concentration of attention on the political and sentimental aspects of the question; (2) that, in striking a bargain, the weaker of the two countries may get the worst of it.

The facts are simple, but the question has been obscured by fallacious reasoning founded on the figures, which at first sight present a paradox. In order to set them out intelligently I shall use round numbers; the principles involved will not be affected by slight inexactness of figures, nor, owing to the entangled condition in which accounts are presented to Parliament, is absolute accuracy attainable.

The population of Ireland is somewhat less than one-seventh of that of the United Kingdom, viz.: 5,000,000 to 36,000,000. The total revenue raised by taxation in the United Kingdom is about £75,000,000; the gross revenue being £90,000,000. No taxes are imposed in Ireland which are not also imposed in Great Britain; but in Great Britain there are taxes, producing from £2,000,000 to £3,000.000 annually, which are not levied in Ireland. The proportion of the imperial revenue which is raised in Ireland is £7,750,000, say one-tenth of the whole. The taxation per head in the different divisions of the United Kingdom is: England (including Wales) £2 2s. 3d., Scotland £2 5s. 7d., Ireland £1 11s. 3d. Ireland, therefore, with a population of one-seventh of the United Kingdom, contributes one-tenth of the total revenue raised by taxation, and per head of population pays 26 per cent. less than England and 31 per cent. less than Scotland. Yet Irishmen complain that Ireland is overtaxed, and most Englishmen who have gone into the figures now admit it. Gladstone's home-rule scheme recognized it, though, with that tendency, characteristic of English legislation, to depart as little as possible from existing practice, even though that practice be unjust, it did not wholly remove the grievance.

It will be conceded that taxation ought to be levied in proportion to the respective abilities of the two countries to bear taxation, and not in proportion to their populations. Great Britain is rich, prosperous, and increasingly so. Ireland has been decaying in population and wealth. Before comparing the capacities for taxation of the two countries, I must explain how it is that while the taxes are the same, their incidence is different.

More than half the revenue of the United Kingdom is raised by customs and excise duties on articles of general and common consumption, the principal ones being spirits, yielding £17,000,000, tobacco £9,500,000, tea £4,500,000, and beer £8,500,000. The duty on wine is comparatively light. These articles are consumed in very different proportions in the two countries. Equality of taxation does not necessarily result from identical imposts in two countries. If a tax on tea were levied at the same rate in England and France, it would yield a large revenue in England, and but little in France. If the tax were on coffee, the effect would be reversed. In Ireland spirits are more largely drunk than beer, the consumption being one gallon per head in Ireland, against two-thirds of a gallon in England and one and a half gallons in Scotland. Beer and wine are far more largely drunk in England, and these beverages are, in proportion to the alcohol contained, much more lightly taxed than spirits. The tax on the alcoholic equivalent of beer to a gallon of spirits is one-fifth of the tax on a gallon of spirits. Ireland consumes tea and tobacco nearly in proportion to her population. Her contribution to the customs revenue is one-tenth of the whole, but under this head she consumes dutiable articles taxed in England, and not estimated as Irish revenue. She contributes to the excise revenue one-sixth, part of this being taxation on spirits and beer made in Ireland, but consumed in Great Britain. What is held to be unfair is, that, so large a part of the revenue being raised from drink, the English national beverage is lightly and the Irish heavily taxed; and that, under a fiscal system based on taxation of articles of general consumption, the incidence of taxation is in proportion to population and not to wealth.

The comparative wealth and capacity to bear taxation of the two countries is shown by the assessments for income tax. This tax is levied on the annual value of (*a*) ownership of real property; (*b*) occupation of same; (*c*) annuities and dividends; (*d*) trades, professions, profits of railways, mines, etc.; (*e*) offices and pensions. The proportion Ireland's assessment bears to that of the United Kingdom, measured by the yield of the tax, is about one-twenty-fourth under the two principal heads, *a* and *d*. Ireland's proportion is one-twentieth for *a* and one-twenty-ninth for *d*. According to this standard, Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue should be somewhat over £3,000,000, instead of £7,750,000. Much might be said in favor of making Ireland's contribution less than this: (1.) Under head *a*, about one-quarter of Ireland belongs to persons resident in England. (2.) Under head *d*, all incomes less than £150 are exempt. The amount of incomes which just escape the tax is, in proportion to population, vastly greater in England than in Ireland. (3.) The imperial revenue is largely spent on objects with which Ireland has no concern, and in keeping up a style which a poor country like Ireland cannot afford. It is estimated that royalty costs the United Kingdom about £1,000,000 a year. England's expensive foreign and colonial policy, her costly fighting services, are for the purpose of advancing and protecting her manufacturing and commercial interests, with which Ireland, a poor and almost exclusively agricultural and pastoral country, has no direct concern. The financial relation of the two countries is as if two persons, one with an income of £24,000, the other with an income of £1,000, were to keep house together, and live at the rate of £25,000 a year; the style and cost of living would be unsuitable and ruinous to him with the smaller income.

A plea made in justification of the excessive taxation of Ireland is that the expenditure

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there is also excessive—that as much is spent as is raised there. This plea is an admission of undue taxation, but the excessive expenditure is, from an Irish point of view, unnecessary, harmful, and the cause of private expense to Irish citizens. There are fewer criminals in Ireland than in Great Britain, but for each England keeps in Ireland 8¾ policemen, against 3 in England and 2 in Scotland. The presence of an undue proportion of soldiers is a very doubtful advantage. State prosecutions, a hostile magistracy, an excessive number of officials, are heavy items in the Irish expenditure. The country is kept in a state of worry and disturbance. Private subscriptions are required in defence of Irish public men, in compensation for injuries and imprisonment inflicted on them, in keeping up organizations to protect interests attacked or threatened by Government. For example, a subscription has to-day very properly been set afoot to indemnify Mr. Wilfrid Blunt, a well-known and respected Englishman, who has been sent to prison for maintaining the right of public meeting and free speaking in Ireland. We have to pay for the costly Crown prosecution, and also for the defence and incidental expenses of Mr. Blunt. The amount that has been required and raised by voluntary subscriptions in Ireland during the last ten years for similar purposes would have far more than sufficed to pay every Irish member of Parliament a handsome salary. Through this excessive taxation we have to buy a stick for our Governor to beat us with, pay the doctor's bill when we are hurt, and buy arms to defend ourselves against him whom we have equipped.

In fairness Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue should be fixed by an impartial arbitrator, but it will be fixed by an assembly where the voting power is five to one against Ireland. Our representatives will require all the moral support in this matter which an intelligent comprehension by their constituents of the facts and figures can alone supply.

The inequality of taxation between the two countries is not due to any malice on the part of English statesmen against Ireland. They have legislated for the United Kingdom regardless of Ireland. The question concerns the classes and the masses as much as the two countries. Under the system by which more than half the revenue is raised by taxation of articles of general consumption, and levied not on values, but quantities, the poor pay very much more than the rich, both in proportion to their means and to the value of the articles used. The system will probably be changed as soon as the newly enfranchised masses become aware of the real incidence and effect of the taxes now levied. Instead of diminishing the income tax in years of prosperity, they should require the exemption from all duty of necessaries and luxuries in general use, such as tea, coffee, tobacco, and fruit. The Government of the United Kingdom is still too much in the hands of an aristocratic ring, and it will take some time to shake off the political and administrative grip they have on the nation.

AN IRISHMAN.

Correspondence.

MR. EDMUNDS AS A POLITICAL ECONOMIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Senator Edmunds, in an article on the tariff in the February number of *Harper's Monthly*, claims that when the duty on a foreign product is reduced, the foreign producer raises his price by an amount substantially equal to the reduction of duty; and therefore the foreign producer and not the American consumer is the gainer. He instances the effect of the act abolishing the duty on tea and coffee, and assumes to quote the wholesale prices of those articles six months before and six months after the passage of the act. The quotations given by him do not show a decline equal to the amount of reduction of duty, and he infers that the foreign producer raised his prices.

The Senator's quotations of tea are so far wrong as to suggest the possibility that he obtained them from his Vermont grocer, who had not learned of the abolition of the duty. The act abolishing the then existing duty of fifteen cents per pound was passed May, 1872, to take effect July, 1872. I give below quotations from the monthly tea circulars of Messrs. Beebe & Brothers of New York, dated November 18, 1871, and November 19, 1872, the dates being about six months before and six months after the passage of the act. Messrs. Beebe & Brothers were the highest authority in the country, and the accuracy of their tea circulars no one in the trade would venture to deny.

QUOTATIONS IN GOLD FOR NEW-CROP MOYUNE, TAENKAI, AND FYCHOW GREEN TEAS.

November 18, 1871.

Gunpowder,	1st	105@110c.	duty paid.
"	2d	80@ 85c.	"
Imperial,	1st	85@ 90c.	"
"	2d	70@ 75c.	"
"	3d	50@ 58c.	"
Young Hyson,	1st	95@105c.	"
"	2d	75@ 85c.	"
"	3d	55@ 62c.	"
"	4th	45@ 50c.	"
Hyson,	1st	80@ 85c.	"
"	2d	67@ 72c.	"
"	3d	50@ 58c.	"

November 19, 1872.

Gunpowder,	1st	78@83c.	duty free.
"	2d	60@63c.	"
Imperial,	1st	60@65c.	"
"	2d	50@52c.	"
"	3d	32@37c.	"
Young Hyson,	1st	68@72c.	"
"	2d	52@56c.	"
"	3d	34@36c.	"
"	4th	28@30c.	"
Hyson,	1st	60@55c.	"
"	2d	45@50c.	"
"	3d	32@37c.	"

As the prices of November, 1872, were lower by even more than the amount of reduction of duty, it is evident that the American consumer and not the foreign producer was the gainer.

The proper basis of comparison, however, is the prices obtained by the China producer. By reference to the *Overland Trade Report* of Shanghai, and to the circulars of the leading houses doing business with the United States, it will be found that teas were lower in China in November, 1872, than they were in November, 1871. China produced tea for all the tea-drinking countries. Their demand and her supply determined the prices she was able to obtain. The United States took but a portion of her supply. For the China producer to appropriate the duty removed, by raising his prices, was as impossible as it would have been for him to raise himself by his queue. The facts were, that the American consumer obtained, in a very short time, the full benefit of the removal of the duty, and also of the profit on the duty that the dealer formerly charged.

WILLIAM SIMES.

BOSTON, February 6, 1888.

A SELF-OPERATING TERMINOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the opening sentence of his article in the February *Forum*, Judge Kelley puts forth an argument which, so far as I have seen, stands unrivalled. He says: "That combustion consumes and that light illuminates are universally accepted propositions; but that protection in the form of customs duties protects the capital and labor engaged in the productive industries to which such duties apply, is denied by sects of discordant *doctrinaires*," etc.

Passing over the admirable alliteration, "denied by sects of discordant *doctrinaires*," which, for rhetorical effect, is very felicitous, please notice the implication involved. Not far from here lives the proprietor of a much advertised "Safe Cure" for kidney and other diseases. "That combustion consumes and that light illuminates are universally accepted propositions; but that" the said Safe Cure cures is denied by various "sects of discordant *doctrinaires*" in medicine, who thus cover themselves with utter confusion; for does not their denial make them guilty of a direct contradiction in terms? You have only to label your nostrum as doing the thing which you wish to have done, to convince any right-minded man that it is accomplishing the result.

The happily chosen misnomer "Protection," like the taking name on the patent-medicine bottle, goes far to account for the popularity of the thing named. B.

THE LOT OF THE POST-OFFICE CLERK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The merits of the bill presented to Congress by the Hon. S. S. Cox of New York, providing for a classification, and regulation of the salaries, of Post-office clerks, are such as ought to insure its speedy consideration and prompt passage.

In the first place, they alone, of all Government employees, have no fixed status, with corresponding salaries. The compensation is determined by the Postmaster out of a fixed sum allowed him by the Department, and it frequently happens that a clerk in one office gets several hundred dollars more than a clerk in another office performing exactly similar duties. The salaries, even in the highest paid offices, are ridiculously small when the difficult character of the work is taken into consideration, and bear no comparison whatever with those of other branches of the Federal service, such as the Custom-house and the Internal-Revenue Department.

In the second place, the positions are such as require a high degree of skill and intelligence. All the faculties are brought into use; the clerks are constantly on their feet, cancelling, sorting, separating, and distributing the letters, pouching them, and forwarding them to their destination. The work goes on day and night, crew succeeding crew; the labor is immense and well-nigh incessant. The smallest error in handling tens of thousands of pieces of mail matter is at once detected; time lost through sickness or other unavoidable causes is deducted from salaries, small as they are; the amount of vacation allowed each clerk per annum is rarely more than one week; and the men are required to work on Sunday.

Under these circumstances the clerks in nearly all the first-class offices throughout the country have organized to improve their position, and with this end in view have caused a bill to be prepared which has already passed its second reading in Congress, and now goes to the Committee on Post-offices for their action. This bill has received the cordial endorsement of prominent citizens of all parties, the Post-office Department itself is in favor of it, and it is to be hoped that the underpaid and overworked clerks will receive that tardy justice they so fully deserve. D. STERITT GITTINGS.

BALTIMORE, January 30, 1888.

OCCUPATION FOR THE BLIND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An amusing confirmation of the truth of Mr. Edward B. Perry's recent articles in the

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Century upon the blind, and the prevailing ignorance of their peculiar requirements, comes to us in the shape of a widely circulated press report of a wonderful game of draw poker played not long since, in an Eastern city, by a quartet of afflicted gentlemen having a specially prepared deck of cards of three times the usual thickness, with surfaces deeply engraved to meet the exigencies of the occasion. Absurd! Such a deck would be not only a ridiculously clumsy contrivance, but one wholly unnecessary, since—thanks to M. Braille—ordinary playing-cards are just as available to the blind as to any other class. Inmates of the Perkins Institute, Boston, have used for a long time cards bearing the initial letters of the various suits, with figures denoting each card's denomination; and here in the West the system has been still further simplified by dispensing with suit initials altogether, the suits being designated by the location of the figure punctured upon each card's lower margin—hearts, left corner; diamonds, left centre; clubs, right corner; and spades, right centre. By marking the lower margin instead of the upper, as in the older method, a card may be recognized by a simple glance of the thumb, as it were, and a whist hand arranged with gratifying celerity.

The recreation of card-playing is doubtless of too trivial a nature to engage for a moment Mr. Perry's attention, but those less independent in character and fortune than he — to whom a gallop on horseback and a European tour appear equally impossible of achievement —naturally view the matter from a different standpoint, and to such the game of chess has proved a source of even greater enjoyment. The notation of moves is readily mastered, and the beginner, having a kind and patient friend —and such is seldom wanting—to assist him in the development of his experimental games, soon finds the way to be quite easy and the pursuit most fascinating. One amateur, claiming a memory rather below than above the average, has even conducted three simultaneous games to a successful, though by no means triumphant, conclusion.

Finally, the type-writer, through whose good offices this communication is made, must not be dismissed without honorable mention. It is not in the least exclusive; it is as easy of access to the blind as to any who see fit to approach it; and, certain trifling formalities having been duly observed, stands ready and willing to serve one and all with impartial zeal and effectiveness. H. S. MOORE.

MUSCATINE, IOWA, January 24, 1888.

WHAT IS AN "ENGLISHMAN"?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you or some of your readers kindly inform me in what sense the word "Englishman" is generally used in the United States?

I am a native of Scotland, but, having lost my brogue through early education in England, I am not easily recognizable as such. I have travelled a good deal, and in speaking to natives of the various countries in which I have been, I have usually, for convenience' sake, described myself as an Englishman, meaning by this a native of the United Kingdom, unless I had occasion to emphasize the facts of my Scottish descent and birth. I do the same in the United States, but I have found that several of my friends have disputed my use of the word in question, saying that I had no right to call myself an Englishman, since I was in reality a Scotchman. Others again, I found, spoke of Canadians as Englishmen, an application of the word which is often much resented by natives of the mother country.

Of course there can be no doubt that technically "Englishman" means "a native of England, *e. g.*, of the southern part of Great Britain." But it seems to me that the word is so commonly employed in the sense of "native of the United Kingdom" that this use cannot be considered as incorrect, especially as "Briton" has passed into the regions of poetry and oratory, and "Britisher," incorrect in form and ugly in appearance, has not taken root in England or America, and as a word for the purpose is wanted.

But I hold that "Englishman" should only be applied to natives of the United Kingdom itself, though Irishmen (small blame to them) in most cases prefer to keep their own national name. If Canadians are English because they are born in a British colony, where are we to stop? Australians, French Canadians, Maltese, Hindus, West Indian negroes, Kafirs, Hottentots, Fijians must all be English. My American friends say, "Well, they *are* as much English as you are." I say, "No; they are fellow-subjects with me of Queen Victoria, fellow-citizens of the British Empire; but they are not English. I call myself English, not from want of patriotism (Scotchmen don't often suffer from lack of that good quality), but because the word is very convenient, and this use of it is quite general."

As I am of a peaceable disposition, and wish to avoid discussions which occasionally become rather heated, I venture to ask you, sir, what you consider to be the general meaning of the word "Englishman" in the United States, so that I may shape my conduct accordingly.

Yours truly, ADAM CRAIG.

COLORADO SPRINGS, January 10, 1888.

[We should think that a Scotchman like Mr. Craig might with perfect propriety call himself an Englishman on the European Continent, or in any place where the habit prevails of looking at and thinking of all natives of the United Kingdom as Englishmen, and people could not distinguish a Scotchman of the better class from an Englishman, Welshman, or Irishman, either by speech or appearance. In the United States or any of the British colonies, however, in which both Englishmen and Scotchmen abound, and in which people are very familiar with their differences of character and accent and traditions, we think the wiser course would be to call himself a Scotchman on all occasions in which there is any obligation to speak of his nativity at all, and especially occasions on which his company expresses opinions about Scotchmen which he does not share, and which they would not knowingly utter in a Scotchman's presence. In brief, it is always wise not to allow any one to assume that you are something which you are not, if the assumption is likely in any way to affect his conduct towards you, or his conversation with you, or his relations of any kind with you.—ED. NATION.]

COEDUCATION AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If coeducation is to stand or fall by statistics, we hope the following will avert its doom for a few years at least. They show the number of students attending the fourteen leading colleges open to women as represented in the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ. They include also the attendance at Bryn Mawr, which has as yet no alumnæ:

	1874.				January, 1888.			
			Per Ct.				Per Ct.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Boston	36	16	69	31	70	106	40	60
California	169	22	88	12	‡242	‡46	84	16
Cornell	436	32	93	7	918	104	90	10
Kansas	*49	*31	61	39	‡146	‡70	68	32
Mass. Ins. Tech.	†175	†22	89	11	694	25	97	3
Michigan	484	51	90	10	528	187	74	26
Northwestern	174	40	81	19	147	89	62	38
Oberlin	207	184	52	48	‡166	‡275	38	62
Syracuse	87	28	76	24	150	58	72	28
Wesleyan	176	7	96	4	176	14	93	7
Wisconsin	171	73	70	30	‡286	‡103	74	26
Total	2164	506	81	19	3523	1077	77	23

	1874. Women.	Jan., 1888. Women.
Bryn Mawr	....	79
Smith	‖ 17	367
Vassar	265	283
Wellesley	‖ 314	620
Total	596	1349

Attention is called to the following facts:

(1.) In every one of the coeducational colleges, the number of women in attendance is greater than in 1874.

(2.) The number of women attending coeducational colleges has doubled since 1874.

(3.) In the above statistics, no enumeration is made in coeducational colleges of students connected with preparatory departments, or with colleges of music or of fine arts. The statistics given for separate colleges for women *include* all such students.

(4.) In four coeducational colleges it was necessary to give the statistics for 1887. Judging by the increase of previous years, the number of women in attendance at such colleges in January, 1888, is greater than that represented by the table.

(5.) The conclusion of the whole matter is, that about the same number of women are attending coeducational and separate colleges for women.—Respectfully, M.

FEBRUARY 4, 1888.

A SWISS VIEW OF A SURPLUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To-day, while reading Dubs's 'Das Oeffentliche Recht der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft' (Part 2, Zurich, 1878), I came upon a passage which I translate as follows:

"The chief point [in finance] is order, and with it self-control; where these fail, begin corruption, stealing, and vices of every sort; and even in fruitful lands we find continual want, yes, want of bread. But too abundant sources of state support are by no means always an advantage to a country. North America would never have fallen into such bad social conditions as are to be found, particularly in the great cities, but for the immense public domain of which it has the disposition. Indeed, on our own soil, in Switzerland, we find examples enough of the fact that great revenues are not always a good thing for their possessors. Our confederation would hardly be in financial distress just now, if the Eldorado of its tariff duties had not directed it in the road of over-expenditure. Never give a state more than is absolutely necessary for its existence, for you are fattening a monster. . . .

"We affirm that every penny that is taken from the country without necessity, in order to pay it to the state, somewhere in the country makes somebody's piece of bread smaller. We have no confidence in patriotic tax-inventions."

Yours respectfully, H.

CAMBRIDGE, January 31, 1888.

* 1877. † 1879. ‡ 1887. ‖ 1875.

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Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will issue on March 1, in connection with the Edinburgh publishers, the first volume of a new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia,' to be completed in ten volumes following one another at short intervals. The maps will be increased in number, and a special set for the United States introduced; the illustrations will be largely renewed, with the aid of photography. Articles written in this country are marked "Copyright."

A 'Life of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet,' founder of deaf-mute instruction in America, is about to be handsomely brought out by Henry Holt & Co.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce for early publication Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's 'Sara Crewe,' uniform in style with the author's 'Little Lord Fauntleroy'; a new novel by George W. Cable, entitled 'Bonaventure: A Prose Pastoral of Acadian Louisiana'; and 'The Tailor-made Girl,' by Philip H. Welch, with full-page illustrations by C. Jay Taylor.

Harper & Bros. publish directly the fifth volume of Kinglake's 'Invasion of the Crimea'; 'Monarchs I have Met' by W. Beatty Kingston; and a pamphlet for the times called 'Tariff and Revenue Discussed,' containing the President's recent message and Blaine's counter message, and the articles by Henry Watterson and Senator Edmunds in the last two numbers of *Harper's Monthly*. A wide circulation of these documents in juxtaposition is much to be desired.

A noticeable number of fresh ventures in periodical literature lie upon our table. We name first the monthly *Our Day*, "A Record and Review of Current Reform," edited in Boston by Mr. Joseph Cook, with the assistance of Miss Frances E. Willard (Temperance department), Prof. E. J. James (Labor Reform), Prof. L. T. Townsend (Education), Anthony Comstock (Prevention of Vice), Rev. C. S. Eby (Missions), and Rev. G. F. Pentecost (Church Work). Five of this staff of writers contribute to the January number. Some of the leading articles are "Shall Utah be Made a Mormon State?" "The Prospects of Prohibition" (by Neal Dow), "Woman as Preacher," "Indictable Art," "The National Divorce Reform League" (Rev. S. W. Dike). The magazine is attractively printed. The *American Anthropologist* is a quarterly publication of the Anthropological Society of Washington, in continuation of their "Transactions." The January number has papers on "The Law of Mal thus," by President Welling of Columbian University; "The Development of Time-Keeping in Greece and Rome," by F. A. Seely; "Anthropological Notes on the Human Hand," by Dr. Frank Baker; and "The Chane-abal Tribe and Dialect of Chiapas," by Dr. D. G. Brinton. Mr. Thomas Hampson is the publisher. The *Teacher*, a monthly educational magazine in the quarto form, comes to us from this city. It looks for its support mainly to the female teachers in the common schools, the editors being themselves of that class. "Its hope is the advancement of pedagogy in all its departments." We hope, therefore, that it will lend a hand to the movement for the higher education of women in New York. It is published at No. 1157 Broadway. *Italia* is the title of a monthly magazine published in English at Rome (New York: International News Co.). Its aim is to spread a knowledge of the current of modern life in literature, politics, economy, art, music, etc. A biographical sketch of the statesman Giovanni Lanza, who died in 1882, leads the table of contents for January. Fiction has a place in the scheme. Finally, we speak of the unseen when we mention the *Children's Illustrated Magazine* started last month by Seeley & Co., London. Two full-page designs in colors will be a standing feature.

In another column we have said our say about President Eliot's Harvard report. On the two topics of science preparation and English preparation, useful commentaries (direct and indirect) will be found in the Syracuse *Academy* for February. We refer to the articles, "How to do Laboratory Work in Chemistry and Physics in High Schools," by Mr. James H. Shepard; "Teaching English Literature," by Miss Anna C. Brackett; and "College Requirements in English," by Mr. W. C. Collar. We are very glad to place on our shelves the bound second volume of this magazine—the highest attainment in practical pedagogic journalism yet made in this country.

Some sickening examples of the way in which Jared Sparks tampered with the text of Washington's private letters are given by Mr. William Henry Smith in the February (or Washington) number of the *Magazine of American History*. He afterwards prints with literal faithfulness several of the letters thus mutilated, and fourteen which Mr. Sparks omitted altogether. They all bear date of 1758, and are addressed to Col. Bouquet. The originals are in the British Museum.

Ought imaginative works to be illustrated; and, if yes, by their authors when capable? This is the burden of a symposium or conversation on book illustration devised by the editor for the January *Portfolio* (Macmillan). We cannot think Mr. Hamerton more successful than commonly happens in such dramatic characterizations. Nevertheless what the poet, scientist, artist, and critic (Mr. Hamerton himself, by confession) have to say is very instructive. In the critic's estimation, Rossetti did wisely to refrain from illustrating his own compositions, whereas "Thackeray's illustrations have a great interest, but it is only psychological. His books, with all their satire, are kindlier in their views of human nature than his drawings," which are very defective. Ruskin "is an artist when he writes, a student when he draws. In writing he unhesitatingly sacrifices accuracy to effect, and that is quite characteristic of an artist." In drawing, just the reverse. "Victor Hugo's drawings are violent," "a savage utterance, partly made in fun, like the thumping on the piano of some vigorous but uncultivated amateur." There is in them "a sort of grim humor and a real turn for the grotesque." The *Portfolio* opens the new year well, offering a fine etching after Millais's portrait of the painter Hook, and one not less admirable by Mlle. Poynot after Henner's "Une Créole."

L'Art for January 1 (Macmillan) is, as usual, largely given up to notices of illustrated holiday publications, with samples of the plates. Its sole article is on the late Gustave Guillaumet, from whose drawings many pleasing and effective selections are made. The etching is after A. Brouillet's "Une Leçon clinique à la Salpétrière."

A portrait of Whittier at the age of eighty that is true to feature and to character without being senile—such is the life-size lithographic print issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. So remote from the still genial face is the feeling of weakness or decay, that one could fancy the firm lip just closed from repeating some stern poet-prophet message, like

> "The bolts which shattered Shinar's tower
> Hang, smoking, for a fiercer fall!"

The Maimonides Library of this city, whose collection is now close upon 30,000 volumes, makes an appeal for contributions of every sort of document illustrating the history of the Jews in America.

No. 26 of the Harvard Library, "Bibliographical Contributions," catalogues the Carlyle collection of books relating to Cromwell and Frederick II., bequeathed by their former owner to this depository. Mr. William Coolidge Lane is the compiler.

Mr. Ford's 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana' has been seconded by Mr. Hamilton Bullock Tompkins with a 'Bibliotheca Jeffersoniana,' published by the same firm (Messrs. Putnam) in uniform size and typography, and also in a limited edition. It is a thoroughly well executed piece of work, and much to be prized. The most interesting of the three hundred odd entries is, of course, bibliographically speaking, the 'Notes on Virginia,' of which from twenty to thirty issues and editions are recorded, one being in French and another in German. On the whole, the number of French translations is smaller than might have been expected. There is one of the 'Manual' and one of the first inaugural address, besides Conseil's 'Mélanges Politiques et Philosophiques.' Three Italian translations are mentioned. Only the more important messages have been taken note of by Mr. Tompkins. A complete set, he tells us, has not existed since the burning of the Capitol in 1814.

Mr. S. S. Rider, in his Providence *Book Notes* for February 4, supplies a title overlooked by Mr. Tompkins, viz., Sears's 'American Politician,' 1842, containing a memoir of Jefferson, his inaugural and first message. In the same number it is demonstrated that no woman was ever hanged for witchcraft in Rhode Island, nor were there any proceedings under the statute imposing the penalty of death for that offence.

A writer in a recent number of the *Kölnische Zeitung* gives an interesting account of the newspaper museum at Aix-la-Chapelle, founded by Oscar von Forckenbeck. It now contains files or specimens of over 17,000 different papers, nearly half of the newspaper press of the world, and is receiving daily additions from every part of the globe. Dr. Wilhelm Joest, the author of a work on the German press in other than European countries, has recently sent to it his collection of 1,200 papers, making it more complete in this department than in that of papers published in Germany. The great curiosity of the Museum, framed and hung upon the wall, is No. 46 of the *Texas Democrat*, published at Houston March 11, 1864, and printed on wall paper.

The January number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* opens with an account by Graf Pfeil of a recent journey through Useguha on the east coast of Africa. Though chiefly devoted to descriptions of the soil and geological observations, it contains some interesting notices of the natives and their customs. A detailed description is also given of a wooden musical instrument, very similar to our xylophone, together with the notes of a melody ordinarily played upon it. This paper is accompanied by a map, as is also Dr. Lange's notice of two river systems in southern Brazil.

Dr. Guido F. Verbeck of Tokio, Japan, the American missionary whom the Mikado's Government placed at the head of their educational system immediately after the civil war of 1868-69, has published his 'Conspectus of the Japanese Verb in all its Conjugations.' In this excellent aid to the mastery of the Japanese language, notwithstanding its brevity and compactness, in ninety-five pages, this scholar has

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presented to the eye the substance of many native grammars and dictionaries.

The *Nation* of August 18, 1887, contained an account of the excavations which had been conducted on the site of the ancient Greek city of Sicyon by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. These excavations were resumed in the autumn, and work there has only recently ceased for the winter. The orchestra and its entrances have been cleared of the layer of earth which covered them. The new finds have not been numerous, but are of considerable importance. The chief is the head of a statue of Parian marble, of good Greek workmanship, about life-size. It was broken into three pieces, but the face is uninjured, with the exception of the nose and one brow slightly marred. It is pronounced to be a Dionysus with extreme feminine traits. A torso was found to which this head may prove to have belonged. Another head was brought out from some retreat by a peasant, and removed to Athens by the Government. A large head of mediocre workmanship was also found in the excavations. These are valuable as the only known specimens of Sicyon art.

Dr. Sigmund Fraenkel, a pupil of Prof. Theodor Nöldeke, has done valuable service for Semitic lexicography by separating from the Arabic lexicon the words of Aramean origin ('Die Aramäischen Fremdwörter in Arabischen,' Leyden: E. J. Brill), and he has in turn discussed the origin of these words, quite a number of which are derived from Persian and Greek. From its arrangement, as well as from its material, the work has an interest for other than lexicographical students. Dr. Fraenkel has disposed the words treated into groups, like house, food, clothing, and ornaments; animals, agriculture, minerals, names of wines and their receptacles; seamanship, military, writing, artisanship, and trade; Christian religion, statesmanship, etc. The student of history can see at a glance how valuable such a work may become for him, enabling him to separate the indigenous from the foreign both in church and state, in literature, and in the family.

We have received two parts, going as far as *fromm*, of the fourth improved edition of F. Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache' (Strassburg: Trübner). We gave a full notice of the first edition in January, 1884. Since then the book has been criticised for its brevity and conciseness, but the author is to be congratulated on not having yielded to the temptation of enlarging it. It is a matter of surprise to us that this work has not been translated into English.

The new edition of 'La France Protestante,' the great biographical and bibliographical dictionary of the French Protestants, has reached the sixth volume, the first half of which, completing the letter F, has just been published. The most noteworthy articles are those on the Estiennes and Farel. It also contains a much fuller list of "forçats pour la foi" than the first editors were able to print.

M. Eugène Réveillaud, the author of a history of Canada and the French Canadians, has discovered in the archives of the department of Seine-et-Oise a manuscript 'Histoire Chronologique de la Nouvelle France,' from 1504 to 1632. The author, a Récollet father, Sixte Le Tac, relates with much vivacity the attempts of the Jesuits to become sole masters of Canada. M. Réveillaud is about to publish the work with notes and documents. The subscription price is announced at ten francs, to be raised to twenty after publication.

In anticipation of the celebration of the centenary of the French Revolution, the Minister of Public Instruction has ordered the collection of material for a 'Histoire Impartiale de la Révolution.' According to a circular recently issued, this is to be grouped under these general heads: "État des personnes (Clergé, Noblesse, Tiers-État); État des terres, Administration (Administration générale, Finances, Justice, État militaire et maritime, Instruction, Beaux Arts); Agriculture (Industrie, Commerce)."

An eminent American instructor writes us as follows: "During the past fortnight, I paid about 30 per cent. duty on one package of books, while duty must have been charged on pamphlets of 40 or 50 pages in two other packages, unless the duty charged was excessive. Some of these were new publications which I desired for immediate use in my professional work, in teaching and in research, and I was more troubled by the delay in the Custom-house than by the 'duty.'"

—The February *Century* is a most excellent number. The Seward-Lincoln correspondence, which has been widely noticed, is a genuine surprise. There could not be more conclusive evidence of the little estimation in which Lincoln was held, when he took office, by the head of his party in the East. The act itself, the scarcely veiled suggestion that Lincoln should resign his functions into the hands of his Secretary of State, is sufficiently remarkable; but the policy Seward foreshadowed, with its two foreign wars, shows how far the would-be prime minister was from having a true sense of the country's situation, and it is a dreadful blow to Seward's reputation for statesmanship that he harbored at all such impossible ideas. He did not understand Lincoln's Fabian mind, which waited until all sides had been heard and all projects discussed before he came to the decision; but this lack of acquaintance with the President's character was excusable, while his own failure to penetrate the internal situation, and his wildness of aim in thinking to fight Spain and France, with Virginia on the point of secession, is a marvel of error. The Chicago Convention had builded better than it knew in placing Lincoln at the head of the ticket. The second article of greatest interest is the Landor correspondence with Miss Boyle, which is of value rather because letters of this kind are rare in our literature than intrinsically. Mr. Lowell's critical introduction is only too brief, and, interesting as is his portraiture of Landor in his old age, one wishes he had had more to say, especially of Landor's poems. Mr. Lowell seems to be thinking of him almost entirely as a prose author. The Russian papers of Mr. Kennan continue to be admirable, and in this instalment the jealously closed secret of the Petropavlovsk fortress has enough light shed on it to make one hope that the fate of the Bastille will yet overtake it. Other articles upon the history of stage-setting, ranch-life on the plains, Paris, and especially the comprehensive contribution of Gen. Sherman on the general military science of the war, are well worth more extended notice than we can give them. The weakness of the number is in its poetry, and of such a performance as Mr. Maurice Thompson's, which is a kind of Nat Willis rendering of Walt Whitman, it is difficult to say whether there is more decomposition of sense or of poetic art in it. It almost rivals Will Carlton's great effort in the Christmas *Harper's*.

—The latest publication of the Shelley Society, a type-facsimile of the 'Epipsychidion,' 1821, contains an admirable preface by Rev. Stopford Brooke, which may be profitably brought into connection with Arnold's recent essay, in which he endeavors to sensualize Shelley in all his relations to women as a man of an "entirely human inflammability." This is a gross view and grossly put, and it is especially unjust to confuse Shelley's idealizing temperament with sensuality in such a case as his attraction towards Emilia Viviani, who is the figure of the 'Epipsychidion.' This poem is the most difficult of his works, because it contains his theory of love, and is, moreover, a poetic and obscure allegory of his own search for ideal beauty, which he symbolizes by its highest imaginative form—woman. Mr. Brooke does not discuss this theory; but he states it fully and freely. Speaking previously of Shelley's Platonism, he says:

"Hence arose a theory of personal human love which traverses the code of social morals, and that theory Shelley held. It was that to bind ourselves down to one object of love alone was not wise, because then we rendered ourselves incapable of seeing and realizing those different aspects of the ideal Beauty which we could find in other minds, in other personalities. . . . Whether Mary liked that theory, whether it has any rightness in it at all, how far Shelley practised it or refrained from putting it into practice, is not the question now. . . . This is a theory capable of being used to promote licentiousness by those who have the sensual idea of love and beauty. By Shelley, who abhorred sensuality, . . . it could not be used in that manner. But he saw no reason whatever why he should not, while he was faithful to his marriage tie, give deep affection to other women, and find represented in them other phases of the absolute beauty, which phases he was bound to feel and gain through them."

—This represents Shelley, on the philosophic side of his mind, very well, and in writing 'Epipsychidion' that was the side he was expressing. The element of reality in it, so far as Emilia was concerned, is very slight. He used her charm for him, which sprang from her pathetic situation and personal beauty, as Raphael might have seen some models and dreamed a Madonna. In other words, his mood was not one of "inflammability," but of idealization. He was amorous, but so, certainly, was Milton; and to confound warmth of temperament with the soulless pleasure of sensuality is a wrong to our nature. Those who have read Mr. Arnold's essay, which seems to us one to be much regretted, cannot find a better illustration of the way in which Shelley thought and felt about love, and made it a mystical element in his poetry and an ideal worship in his life, than this preface, which contains much sound and temperate criticism of Shelley's modes of expression, both in their weakness and in their surprise. To the essay are added the fragment "On Love" and the beautiful "Una Favola," which is an earlier prose 'Epipsychidion' with Emilia left out.

—The forty-sixth birthday of Sidney Lanier, the Southern poet and musician, was celebrated in Baltimore on February 3 by a company of his personal friends and associates. It is nearly seven years since he died, and his fame appears to be constantly increasing as the ideal of his aspirations is more clearly discerned. He has never been a "popular" poet—perhaps he never will be. To some minds he appears obscure; to some he seems like a poet of another age discoursing on modern themes; to others—and this number is growing—he seems a poet of the future, the herald of better things to come from the pens of those who are inspired by the ideas that animated him. Whatever may be his ultimate position, the celebration in Baltimore shows that his life and writings have already made a strong impression on a large number of gifted and earnest minds. The immediate occasion of the assembly was the presenta-

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tion of a likeness of the poet to the Johns Hopkins University. The sculptor, Ephraim Keyser, now at work on the Arthur monument, modelled the bust during Lanier's life, and caused it to be cast in bronze. When a kinsman of the poet, Mr. Charles Lanier of New York, heard of the existence of this work of art, he generously gave it to the University in which Lanier had been a lecturer. A citizen of Baltimore offered the pedestal. To receive the gift, a company of perhaps one hundred and fifty persons assembled in the hall where the poet had read his lectures on the Growth of the Novel, English Literature, and on the Science of Verse. There stood the bust crowned with laurel; on the pedestal hung his flute; at the base was a bed of flowers. Musicians representing the Peabody Orchestra, in which for years Lanier had played the flute, took part in the exercises. One of his musical compositions, adapted to words of Tennyson's, and one of his own poems, which a friend had set to music, were sung. Miss Ward, sister of Lanier's biographer, read selections from his poems. Father Tabb, a Catholic priest who had shared with Lanier the privations of prison life during the civil war, read a sonnet in commemoration of his friend; another sonnet came from Richard E. Burton of Connecticut, and longer poems from Mrs. Turnbull of Baltimore and Joseph Cummings of Tennessee. Just before the hour of the meeting, the mail brought some exquisite lines from Miss Edith M. Thomas, which, like the poems already mentioned, were read aloud. Professor Tolman of Ripon College, once a pupil of Lanier's, contributed a critical estimate of his 'Science of Verse,' and Mr. Burton prepared a list of printed articles and poems, some thirty in number, which have appeared since Lanier's death, many of them by writers of distinction. President Gates of Rutgers College spoke in words of affectionate admiration of the ethical influence of Lanier's character and life. Many interesting letters were received, and three of them, those of Lowell, Richard W. Gilder, and Edmund C. Stedman, were read. Finally, as a choice memento of the hour, a card, designed and given by Mrs. Whitman of Boston, was offered to every one of the company. Upon one side of the card were a wreath of laurels, the name and date, and the words "Aspiro dum exspiro," and on the other side the lines with which Lanier closed his hymn to the Sun, in the first of the "Hymns of the Marshes":

"Ever by day shall my spirit, as one that hath tried thee,
Labor at leisure, in art; till yonder, beside thee
My soul shall float, friend Sun;
The day being done."

—The Wisconsin State Historical Society is well-nigh coeval with the State. It has just held its thirty-fifth annual meeting, and the State lacks some months of being forty years old. The Society has no rival west of the Alleghanies. Its library numbers 60,722 bound volumes, and its pamphlet collection some thousands larger—a total of 123,449. The seventh volume of its catalogue has just been published, and the tenth and eleventh octavos of its historical collections are now in the press. Its volumes of Shaksperiana are 885, those on the War of the Rebellion 1,617, newspaper files 5,240. A class catalogue has been published of works on the Rebellion. The art-gallery contains 149 portraits of men who have figured in State history. The Indian relics and stone tools are numerous, and the magazine of copper implements is nowhere surpassed, or surpassed only in Buda-Pesth. Among the manuscript treasures are autographs of every one of the fifty-six signers of the Declaration of Independence, and something more than a signature in the handwriting of almost all of them. The historical gatherings are garnered up in a wing of the State Capitol which was built a few years ago to contain them. This building was considered to be fire-proof, as well as to afford ample room and verge enough for the accumulations of ages. It now appears, however, that in fifteen years the Society will be crowded, and must say: "The place is too strait for me; give place to me, that I may dwell." For this reason, and still more in order to enshrine such historic jewels as cannot be duplicated where the assurance that they cannot be burned will be doubly sure, the Wisconsin historiophilists are impatient to obtain, through munificence private or public, new and larger quarters in an edifice isolated and incombustible. Their past successes encourage the hope that their will will have its way. Alexander Mitchell, the Milwaukee banker and railroad president, who died last April, was for some time President of the Historical Society. Hence a memorial address concerning him was delivered at the annual meeting. The speaker, Prof. James D. Butler, confined himself to Mr. Mitchell's financial career. Imported from Scotland as a clerk in a so-called insurance company, Mr. Mitchell turned it into a bank, and the only one for thirteen years in a State twice as large as Scotland and growing faster than any of our States has ever grown. He became the foremost banker in the Northwest, and then was for more than twenty years conspicuous among railroad kings. The railroad fragments which, when he took hold of them, were less than 400 miles long, he expanded so as to leave them with a length of more than 5,000 miles. No man has moulded Wisconsin history with a more potent hand.

—In 1879, Dr. Grímur Thomsen of Bessestad, himself a poet, whose lyrics, though not numerous, are of a high order, began to make the necessary collections for a memorial edition of the poetical works of the Icelandic hymnologist, Hallgrímur Pétersson. The task proved no easy one, for not only were some of the editions of the poet's verse, running back through two centuries, very rare, but many productions bearing his name, yet of more or less doubtful authenticity, were in existence, demanding a good deal of careful sifting before the table of contents of the proposed collection could be made out. There were variations, too, of some importance in the printed texts of the religious verse, especially in the issues of an early date, and others in the few manuscripts to be found in the Icelandic libraries. As for the non-religious verse, no real attempt had been made to gather it together, much less to edit it. The long labors of Dr. Thomsen have now resulted in the appearance, a few months since, of the first volume of 'Sálmar og Kvædi eftir Hallgrím Pétursson,' a very handsome specimen of Icelandic typography—the presses of Reykjavík being, in fact, not at all inferior, in the quality of their work, to those of far larger European capitals. An engraved portrait of the poet, in his stiffly fluted Lutheran ruff, forms the frontispiece. The volume comprises the fifty 'Hymns on the Passion' (*Passíu-sálmar*)—the one great poetic classic of the modern literature; the versified paraphrase of the first book of Samuel, and a fragment of the second (Samúels-sálmar); and the 'Spiritual Chain' (*Andleg- Kedja*), or verselets based on the Gospels, which is ascribed by Dr. Thomsen to the pen of Hallgrímur, mainly on internal evidence. The book ends with some pages of notes, among them being a bibliography of the 'Passion Hymns' more complete than any yet compiled. It enumerates thirty-six editions, beginning with the first (issued at Hólar in 1666), or, including the present one, thirty-seven—an average of a new edition every six years. Dr. Thomsen has prefixed an instructive essay on the life and literary activity of the poet, with an incidental account of early Icelandic hymnology. He shows with what astonishing rapidity the German Reformation and post-Reformation hymns reached the remote island and were turned into the vernacular. Their fire and fervor doubtless awoke the slumbering memories of the previous Skaldic ages, for they speedily found not only translators, but imitators, and the whole land burst out in a chorus of hymns, the echoes of which are still heard; sacred verse forming a disproportionately large part of the new literature. No other of the religious bards has reached the eminence of Hallgrímur Pétursson, but many have been remarkable in their way, turning not alone the books of the Bible, but popular collections of sermons, or meditations, or prayers, into series of hymns. The second volume of Dr. Thomsen's edition, now printing, is to contain the remaining hymns of the author, and his secular verse—much of which, singularly enough, is broadly humorous, but showing often a marvellous metrical ingenuity. This will still leave material enough for a supplementary third volume, to contain his *rímur* (tales in verse), and his religious prose (chiefly prayers and meditations).

FROUDE'S WEST INDIES.

The English in the West Indies; or, the Bow of Ulysses. By James Anthony Froude. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE value of a book will always be determined mainly by the author's purpose in writing it. It may have no value even if the author's purpose is well settled in his own mind, because he may be a bungler in his art. But even if he is not a bungler, his work will be bad if he is overmastered by something quite different from the task he has set out to do and really thinks he is doing. The central idea of Mr. Froude's work on the West Indies is that England ought not to grant home rule to Ireland. This is the beginning, the middle, and the end of it. All that he tells us about the West Indies is scaffolding for an argument on the Irish question. He takes his departure from London with the Gladstonian jargon ringing in his ears. He escapes it until he reaches the islands, although the remembrance of it sadly mars the pleasure of the journey by sea. When he finds himself in West Indian waters, the greatness of Rodney and the contrasted littleness of Gladstone, and indeed of all English Parliamentary orators who have ever lived, with the possible exception of Chatham, who was essentially a man of war, come over him with new force. At Jamaica he gets his first mails from home. Of course they are filled with the everlasting Irish question, and so we have the whole thing over again. We do not intend to follow Mr. Froude's Irish debates. As critics of his West Indian observations, we neither approve nor disapprove his positions regarding home rule, but we present one paragraph from his musings in the island of Jamaica. *Ex uno disce omnes:*

"Mr. Sexton says that if England means to govern Ireland, she must keep as large an army there as she keeps in India. England could govern Ireland in perfect peace without an army at all, if there was no faction in the House of Commons. Either party government will destroy the British empire, or the British nation will make an end of party government on its present lines. There are sounds in the air like the cracking of the ice in the Neva at the in-

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coming of spring, as if a nobler spirit was at last awaking in us. In a few more years there may be no more Radicals and no more Conservatives, and the nation will be all in all."

Holding such decided views on the subject of home rule in Ireland, Mr. Froude must necessarily take a very dark view of home rule in the West Indies—if there were any such thing. A simulacrum of it existed for a while in Jamaica, until Governor Eyre put an end to it by shooting and hanging a lot of "niggers." The account which Mr. Froude gives of this deplorable affair, even if no other account were accessible, would convince an impartial reader that the massacre was brutal and unnecessary, the work of a weak-minded man, acting under the influence of the white inhabitants who were under the momentary influence of panic; and that the execution of Gordon, the colored orator and member of the Jamaican Assembly, was a cold-blooded executive murder. Mr. Froude drops a tear over the grave of poor Gordon, while sitting in his (Gordon's) lovely garden; but his sympathies are mainly with poor Eyre, who was dismissed from office after an investigation by the Home Government. Poor Eyre was completely "ruined" by this sad affair, although no man ever shed his brother-in-law's blood more conscientiously (Mr. Froude, in his sentimental moments, always speaks of the West Indian African as our "brother-in-law").

Mr. Froude's book has a political purpose throughout, viz., to put on the brakes and stop the train that is rushing towards "dismemberment of the empire." We must have no such nonsense as home rule in the West Indies. But we defy anybody to tell from reading this volume what is the present government of the English West Indies, or any one of them. The fact is, that those governments are exactly such as Mr. Froude extols and commends as best suited to all the non-English colonies of Great Britain. They are Crown colonies, whose political existence depends upon an earthly providence sitting in Downing Street. The nearest approach to self-government is found in the island of Barbadoes, where there are 4,000 electors to 175,000 inhabitants, the tests of the suffrage being partly those of property and partly educational. Mr. Froude unconsciously testifies to the tranquil and orderly and comparatively prosperous state of Barbadoes. The island is overpopulated (more than 1,000 to the square mile). It is hard to fill so many mouths from the produce of so small a patch, but it would be harder still to find any purely Downing Street colony that is doing so well.

The case being admittedly bad in the islands generally, so bad that Mr. Froude can hardly find words for his indignation over the net result, we are moved to ask, "What is the matter? The islands do not have home rule, and apparently do not want it. They have their earthly providence—their Ulysses always stringing his bow in Downing Street—why do they not get on?" There are two reasons, according to Mr. Froude. One is, that the trustee in Downing Street does not take an interest in his *cestuis que trust*. The other is that the islands were not allowed to have a reciprocity treaty with the United States, whereby the price of sugar might have been raised by its free admission into its greatest market. If England would only gird herself up and do her duty and take an interest—if she would "make an effort," like Mrs. Dombey, or "be a man," like Mr. Chuffey, we should see an improvement very soon. Why do not young Englishmen go to the West Indies and make their fortunes? asks Mr. Froude again and again. Here is land and labor and climate and richness all inviting the ingenuous and sturdy youth of Albion to go and make their homes. Alas, they are deterred by the apprehensions of home rule and negro supremacy! And the enterprising Yankee is deterred by the same fear. Give us the assurance that we shall have none of this, and we shall straightway begin to take an interest and make an effort and be a man. Let Downing Street, or rather let all England, come up and take a solemn oath to wage eternal war against home rule. Nothing short of this will ever restore the Antilles to their former prosperity and Britain to her pristine glory.

The amount of misinformation in Mr. Froude's book concerning things that he saw with his own eyes is extraordinary. He says, for instance (p. 50), that the blacks in the islands are "perfectly happy." "They have no aspirations to make them restless. They have no guilt upon their consciences. They have food for the picking up." A people who have food for the picking up are, of course, in an enviable state, seeing how great a struggle mankind generally have to get a sufficiency. We are considerably surprised, therefore, to read a little further on (p. 109), that if Barbadoes is driven into bankruptcy (by the failure of the American reciprocity treaty), and wages cease, "the negroes will starve and will not take their starvation patiently." Why should they starve when food can be had for the picking up? Why should they work for wages at all in such a land of plenty? The truth is, that the West Indian negro seldom has enough to eat. His wages are only twenty cents a day, and he has to buy food imported from the United States and reaching him with freight charges and heavy import duties added to the American price. Let anybody take a walk along the roads in any of the islands with the special view of seeing how much food he can gather without paying for it. Then let him leave the road and plunge into a tropical jungle with the same view. His foraging will be just as productive as it would be in Westchester County, New York, or in Warwickshire, England. The plantain, the cheapest food of the tropics, is as much an article of commerce as the cabbage is in the United States. Yams are sold in all the market-places, and it is absurd to suppose that the negroes would buy them out of their scanty earnings if they could be had for the picking up.

Mr. Froude recurs again and again to the injustice done to the islands by disallowing the reciprocity treaty with the United States, although every American and every well-informed Englishman knows that the treaty never had the smallest chance on our side of the bargain. The Mexican Reciprocity Treaty, which was far more favorable to us and far less objectionable to our own sugar planters, remains unconfirmed to this day. The West Indian Treaty, if there had been any such thing, would have been shelved with even less ceremony. But Mr. Froude's indignation becomes hottest when he tells his readers (p. 318) that "the commercial treaty which was offered to our islands by the United States has been accepted eagerly by the Spaniards. *Spanish sugar goes free into the American market.*" This will be news to our customs officers. If it were true, it would spare Congress a world of trouble in dealing with the surplus. Who could have told Mr. Froude that the sugar of Cuba is admitted free of duty into the United States, we cannot imagine. Perhaps it was the same deceiver who told him (p. 340) that "St. Domingo, or Española, of which Hayti is the largest division, was the earliest island discovered by Columbus." Other historians say that it was one of the Bahama group, to which Columbus gave the name of San Salvador.

Mr. Froude draws a dark picture of negro self-government in the republic of Hayti. As this is taken almost wholly from the pages of Sir Spencer St. John, it is probably a true picture. But he says nothing about the adjoining republic of St. Domingo, which is doing as well as some white republics and some British Crown colonies that might be named.

There is a chilling suggestion here and there in Mr. Froude's pages that slavery was not so very wrong, and may even have been beneficial to the blacks, since they were slaves in their own country and were only transferred from a barbarous servitude to a civilized one. This is a characteristic inaccuracy, if not a suppression of the truth; the fact being that man-hunting existed in Africa only because there was a market for slaves outside. But for the white slave-trader, the native slave-hunter would not have been. The same thing is still going on in the Sudan. The slaveholder in the Orient may as easily say that he is doing no wrong because his victims were slaves before he got them.

There have been many books written on the West Indies, but none that we have read is so worthless and untrustworthy as Mr. Froude's. In mere descriptive writing it is surpassed by Kingsley's, and, while not devoid of entertaining qualities, it is inferior to the recent one by Mr. Paton. But Mr. Froude does not write to describe tropical scenery and vegetation, or to while away one's leisure hours. He writes to instruct and educate. He has a deep moral purpose. It is to show how the world has degenerated since the days of Charles V.; how inferior the nineteenth century is to the sixteenth; how the Reformation has gone on levelling and grinding us into an indistinguishable mass—all this in a style which may be called Carlylese in the fifth or fiftieth dilution. We quote a sample from p. 306:

"The sixteenth century was the blossoming time of the Old World, and no such men had appeared since as then came to the front, either in Spain, or Italy, or Germany, or France, or England. The actual leaders of the Reformation had been bred in the system which they destroyed. Puritanism and Calvinism produced men of powerful character, but they were limited and incapable of continuance; and now the liberty which they had demanded had become what their instinct had told them from the first must be the final shape of it, a revolution which would tolerate no inequalities of culture or position, which insisted that no man was better than another, which was to bring down the high till all mankind should stand upon a common level—a level not of baseness or badness, but a level of good-humored, smart, vulgar, and vulgarizing mediocrity, with melodrama for tragedy, with farce for comedy, sounding speech for statesmanlike wisdom; and for a creed, when our fathers thought that we had been made a little lower than the angels, the more modest knowledge that we were only a little higher than the apes."

This was the substance of Mr. Froude's contention in an argument with one Don G——, in the island of Cuba. If Don G—— had been a reader of Dickens, he must have sighed with the elder Turveydrop: "I see nothing to succeed us but a race of weavers."

RECENT NOVELS.

Miss Curtis. A Sketch. By Kate Gannett Wells. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Mahaly Sawyer. By S. E. D. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Major Lawrence, F.L.S. By the Hon. Emily Lawless. Henry Holt & Co.

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The Fiddler of Lugau. By the author of 'Mlle. Mori.' Thomas Whittaker.

Wandel der Zeiten. Vier Erzählungen vom Verfasser der 'Erinnerungen eines deutschen Offiziers.' Wiesbaden: J. F. Bergmann; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

It is not essential that a sketch should be also a sermon, but, from its beginning, the reader of 'Miss Curtis' is justified in seeking a lesson through its pages, and may fairly feel disappointed, on laying down the volume, at his inability to decide what the lesson is. It breathes the aroma of mission too aggressively for an amusing book, and glitters with too much brightness for a didactic one. Children, and all persons having charge of children, will do well not to read the opening chapters. A child who "explains herself" at all is to be shunned, still more one who "explains herself by saying that she never knew how far down she should settle, and that when she got to the finality of anything there was little of it; though it was just like the sediment in any other process of thinking—right for right's sake." To the same infant phenomenon "all boys, except the visionary one of the future, were . . . as so many girls," including, it may be supposed, her brother, to whom she thus expounds herself: "With girls it is always couldn't because we have not got so much daring in us; and with boys it is wouldn't because they are set in their ways." One is by this time prepared for the boy's avowal "that he would have nothing more to do with girls; they could not be trusted, they were so emotional." These are capital children to discourage in real life, and to keep out of literature, if unconsciousness and simplicity are good things, and if, as Mr. Fiske tells us, the perfection of the race hinges on the length of its childhood. But what can be expected of children whose mother's ambition for them is that they should "feel the sense of universal relationships before they can understand what those words mean," that it may "prevent them from becoming conventional"; there being "nothing so deadening for children as a perception of conventionality"? Young ladies who are anxious to be popular will be helped by learning, on the same mamma's authority, that that which makes a belle is "the power of circumscribed adaptation; she means a girl adapts herself to small people, not to causes."

The lady who figures in the title rôle is a monster of eccentricity. Serving a sponge-cake baby at a children's Christmas party is not an endearing action, and should have been carefully forgotten if ever done. There is too much that is strained in the book for it to be an effectual protest against morbidness, which one half suspects it is intended to be; the characterizations are too vague to make it a story, too detailed to take refuge under the assumed name of "a sketch." The girl who renounces conventionality becomes a slave to un-convention, and does but change her manacles. The settlement of "the proportions of life, between purpose and hobbies, conventions and freedom," seems on the whole no nearer adjustment for the existence of this book. In style, it is in the tone of repressed epigram, made familiar to the reading world by many little novelists of the past decade. One would say that the best thing to have done with the material would have been to take the clever sayings in which the book abounds and make them into a calendar. One of the best of these is Miss Curtis's stern advice to an over-zealous reformer: "Why don't you leave something to be done in eternity? You will advance morality ahead of chemistry; the world will be perfect long before it is destroyed. Better let the sciences keep pace with each other."

Complaint cannot be made of 'Mahaly Sawyer' that it lacks motive. Though thinly disguised as a story, it is a treatise upon behavior towards servants. It is written in a humane and kindly spirit, and contains in its suggestions much gentleness, much good sense, and occasional flashes of shrewdness. As a story it is on a par with the tales of the late T. S. Arthur, and may be ranked in what has been called the pie and piety school.

To turn to 'Major Lawrence, F.L.S.,' from these books is (so far as construction is concerned) like going to a theatre after witnessing performances by amateur actors. 'Major Lawrence' shows the hand of the expert in novel-writing, which is not to say that it is a cleverer book than 'Miss Curtis,' or that it has as wide a range of topic, or that it is written with any motive beyond that of entertainment. But its well-defined form, its clear and ingenious characterizations, its expressive and elastic English make it, particularly during its first half, a highly readable book. It is true that it is laid out on somewhat conventional lines, comfortably familiar to the omnivorous reader of English novels. The imperious high-bred English dame—a delightful character, too; the reticent John Bull hero, oscillating between his native island and his Indian regiment, with a rather fatiguing persistence which suggests a mileage ticket that must be used up; the self-willed hoyden developing into a Griselda; the fastidious, brutal husband; the slangful brother—all are there, very truepennies of faithful attendance on the British novel-writer's pen, as constant institutions as any others of British soil. Comfortable, kindly acquaintance they are; one is quite sure that they will not forget their parts nor disgrace their management.

It must be confessed that there are too many acts in the drama. Even English landscape, though as pictorially and poetically described as herein, palls a little upon too much repetition. Italian villages and Italian hotels lose their distinctiveness when they crowd too thickly. Griselda, like the figure on the Grecian urn, appears destined to be the immortal bride of quietness while the love story stands still so long; and her lover, like him who ever wooed the immortal bride, threatens too, like him, to tease us out of thought as doth eternity. Two protests must be entered—one, in the name of all novel-lovers against the incomplete ending. After witnessing so much pain and struggle, the reader deserves the cakes and ale of an old-fashioned final tableau. The second protest is against the protraction of scenes of dissolution, mental or physical, such as fill page upon page of this book. Emerson's canon of breakfast-table manners holds good for works of fiction, and should abolish extended discourse of leprosy, sciatica, and thunderstroke. If the stage must be cleared, let it be done without needless delay and detail. But when all is said, this novel, spite of certain obvious weaknesses of plot and prolixities of form, will find many pleased readers for its flowing style, its bright epigram, its agreeable incident and charming conversation, and most of all for that all the world loves a lover.

The 'Fiddler of Lugau' is a pleasing little story, tastefully written, as its authorship insures. The scene is laid for the most part in the Saxon town of Lugau during the early years of the century, affording a striking background for skilfully drawn pictures of life in Germany during the Napoleonic wars. The presence of certain Netherlanders in the place, and that of a few Wends, descendants of the builders of the town—a once proud and powerful race, now few, feeble, and despised, and but ill-assimilated with the German life about them—lend variety to the personages, and furnish complications for the story, while the Saxon hatred of Napoleon, lacking completeness only by reason of another hatred of Prussia, the distant tramp of French troops, the suffering and uncertainty of the times, make a grimly effective setting for a tender little tale of love and loyalty, wherein music is the motive spring. The jealousies and revenges, professional and political, which run side by side, the peals of church chimes, and the eloquence of the violin, the alarms of war, and the home life in the families of Lugau, schoolboy tricks and faithful love, make up the story. Spite of the happy ending, it is a pathetic little history, shadowed by war and by the ever-touching tale of sensitive genius meeting no recognition except from a pair of loyal young hearts. All is told with exquisite refinement. The vividness and charm of the local color make one feel the final change of scene to London and a merchant's household to be something of an anti-climax. One would rather have closed the book on the wooded moor that lay round Lugau, spirit-haunted, or at a Saxon fireside with the grandmother knitting in the corner.

General Hartmann's latest volume of tales is characterized by the same grace and smoothness of style which distinguished those formerly published. The characters and incidents are natural, and are agreeably described, as well as agreeable in themselves, and they have a sort of historical value as illustrating four phases of modern German history—1830, 1848, 1864, and the heyday of Bismarck's glory. Great is Allah, and greater is his Prophet! to wit, the Chancellor—this is the burden of the General's song in the fourth tale, which is rather livelier than the others, having apparently been written for the stage, since the narrative portions are nothing but stage directions. The first of the stories has the same landscape and atmosphere as Mr. Shorthouse's 'Violin' and 'Schoolmaster Mark,' but, singularly enough, the English romancer surpasses the German on the latter's own ground, not only as regards the interest of the story, but in viewing his characters through that dreamy, poetic haze which seems to arise from the soil of Germany alone. Nowhere else is romance able entirely to divest itself of the hard and graceless facts of life or history, while here such dematerialization seems almost involuntary. General Hartmann's tales are quite free from the morbid or artificial sentiment which defaced some of Auerbach's efforts in this direction, but they cannot, we should think, prove very interesting, even in Germany, and must certainly be found dull in proportion to the distance therefrom.

SIR FREDERICK POLLOCK'S REMINISCENCES.

Personal Remembrances of Sir Frederick Pollock. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

The long and glorious career of the English aristocracy is principally due to a cause which is very well illustrated in the history of the Pollock family. The grandfather of Sir Frederick, the author of these memoirs, was a saddler. Although at one time well off, he died poor, partly perhaps in consequence of his having trusted the Prince of Wales (George IV.) to the extent of £3,000. A portion of this debt was eventually paid by the nation, but the saddler had become so much impoverished that he was unable to keep his son at Cambridge, and it was owing to the generosity of Tavel, his tutor at

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Trinity College, that the young man completed his course. This son became Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer; his son, the present writer, held a number of dignified and lucrative positions under the crown; and his son, of the same name, is now Professor of Jurisprudence at Oxford. They all have made contributions to general as well as professional literature. Another of the saddler's sons, Sir George Pollock, became Field-Marshal, and other members of the family have occupied distinguished positions in her Majesty's service. It is in this way that the ruling class in England have perpetuated their power. They have constantly renewed their vigor by contact with the people, and welcomed to their ranks men of whatever birth, provided they were of proved ability.

So far as appears from these volumes, the fact that a man is of a new family does not affect in the slightest degree his position in London society. Sir Frederick appears to have known everybody worth knowing, and to have gone everywhere he wanted to. When a youth, he danced with the Marquis of Huntly, who had danced with Marie Antoinette, and in his old age he pays a hearty compliment to the wife of the present American Minister to the Court of St. James's. The number of distinguished persons that he speaks of dining with, passes all computation. Through the influence of his father he was early introduced to the excellent society of the northern circuit, and he quickly extended his acquaintance to the notables of science, literature, and the drama. He seems to have been equally intimate with Faraday and Tyndall and Babbage, with Carlyle and Tennyson, with Dickens and Macready and Delaunay. In fact, we believe that somewhere in these pages the name of almost every Englishman of any considerable distinction in recent times is mentioned as that of an acquaintance, and of a large number of them some anecdote, generally humorous, is preserved.

"Remembrances," in the sense of "Recollections," is a rather singular usage even on the part of a sometime Queen's Remembrancer. But some quaintness of expression may be allowed to a functionary who actually requires the rendering of feudal services, and presides with gravity while the Solicitor of the City of London counts out horse-shoes and nails, in respect of a forge which formerly existed near St. Clement Danes in the Strand, and chops representative faggots with an axe and a bill-hook, in respect of certain land in Shropshire. A far more serious matter, and, considering the literary habits of the author, a discreditable breach of good manners, is his flinging his memoirs at the public without introduction, preface, or index. He seems to have, in the first place, written down the story of his youthful experiences out of his "remembrance"; then to have sandwiched in a number of letters without offering any explanation of them; and finally to have fallen back on his diary and printed it without revision. For example: The reader is left to find out that letters signed "Fred. Pollock" are not from the author but from his father, while the author is to be found under the initials "W. F. P." One is continually reflecting that Sir Frederick is not making the most of his opportunities, and that so accomplished a man of the world ought to have furnished better appointments to our entertainment. Because of these offences, we shall refrain from paying the author several compliments that have occurred to us, and proceed without remorse to transfer some of his best stories to these columns. Considering the time that we had wasted on account of the omission of an index, we intended to begin with a striking remark of Talleyrand's concerning ennui and loss of time; but, owing to this omission, we cannot find it. The following is probably the best of all the stories of Lord Dudley's absence of mind:

"He was dining with King William and Queen Adelaide, and was sitting next the Queen. Some dish was handed round, to which Lord Dudley helped himself, and, finding it much to his liking, and being a great judge of good eating, he thought it his duty to tell his neighbor of it. So, forgetting where he was, and all the etiquette of the palace, he turned to the Queen and said, 'You really ought to take some of this; it is most excellent.' The Queen only smiled and thanked him. A minute afterwards the same thought came again into Lord Dudley's head, and again he strongly urged the Queen to have some, with the same result. After another short interval, for the third time he pressed the capital merits of the dish upon the Queen's notice, who then replied, 'I am glad you like it, Lord Dudley. It must be very good, for this is the third time you have told me of it.' Then he, remembering that, but forgetting everything else, exclaimed, loud enough to be heard by all the table, 'Damn the woman, so it is!'"

This may be contrasted with the story of Dugald Stewart's memory. He was once asked what was the earliest thing he could remember, and said it was being left alone by his nurse in his cradle, and resolving to tell of her as soon as he could speak. Of this character must have been the memories of the parties mentioned in the anecdote of Lady Acton, whom Pollock met in 1868, and who remembered talking at Naples to an officer who had been in the service of Louis XIV. (ob. 1715).

The account of the desperate and illegal efforts made by Mrs. Carlyle to relieve her husband of jury-duty, of his frantic protestations, and of his success in bringing around the obstinate juror "with a huge flat head and evidently no sense in it, cheeks flowing down far and wide," who had starved out juries before, and had the firmest mind in England, is too long to quote, but will appeal to many of our readers. Other sufferers will appreciate the caustic wit of Justice Maule, who, being asked by a friend what sort of instructions he should give to his architect, said: "Don't let him know what you really want, or you will be sure not to get it." A very pointed speech of Mrs. Grote's is recorded. She went to see Louis Napoleon in Paris about 1849, "when he, remembering some former misunderstanding between them, chose to be very cool and distant in his reception of her, and only asked her, 'Do you stay long in Paris?' when she had her revenge by answering, 'No; do you?'"

For after-dinner use there is nothing better than the story of the conversation with Sir John Bayley at a Northern Circuit dinner in 1842, where, among other great wines, was a White Hermitage, of which Bayley said:

"'This reminds me of a wine I once got in travelling. I was with another man, going out of Lyons, when the carriage broke down, and, while they were setting it to rights, we went into a little inn by the roadside, where they brought us some White Hermitage. It was so good that we did not leave the house until we had drunk it all.' I asked how long that was. 'About three weeks,' he said. I was lost in admiration at the philosophy of this way of travelling."

For those who wish to be instructed as well as entertained, we will quote an anecdote told by Kinglake, which contains the substance of volumes upon the political history of France. During an election under the Second Empire, Montalembert desired his tenants to go and vote as he wished against the Government. "They came back without having voted. He asked: 'Pourquoi n'avez-vous pas voté?' 'Mais, Monsieur le Comte, il y avaient des gendarmes.' 'Qu'est-ce qu'ils ont fait?' 'Rien, Monsieur le Comte.' 'Qu'est-ce qu'ils ont dit?' 'Rien, Monsieur le Comte.' 'Mais, pourquoi donc . . .?' 'Ils y étaient, Monsieur le Comte.'"

There is not much that is substantial in the book, but it is very pleasant reading. It is evident enough that the author is a genial and popular man, many-sided in his tastes and accomplishments—he translated Dante, among other things—and he has had a full share of the good things of this life, all of which he has known how to appreciate. His feeling remarks upon the great Guildhall dinners remind us of the epicure who confided to a friend that he liked good things to eat—and a great many of them—and to have them last a long time. But, after all, the dinner is the central event of the day in modern life, and though one may share Hawthorne's perplexity as to the occupations of Englishmen in a dinnerless hereafter, it is the feast of reason and flow of soul that sublimate such occasions.

The Master of the Gunnery. A Memorial of Frederick William Gunn. By his Pupils. New York: The Gunn Memorial Association (H. W. B. Howard, Secretary, 27 Park Place). 1887.

THIS beautiful quarto volume, richly and gracefully illustrated, is, as the title indicates, the memorial of a school and of its master. In this case the master was the school, just as a great preacher is the church. Mr. Gunn's personality was so strong, uncompromising (though tender), and vital that he became a very part of his pupils, and his taking-off was felt by each as a family, even a parental, bereavement. Nothing could exceed the good taste of this memorial, which supplements the monument placed at the teacher's grave. Seven of the "Gunnery's" alumni—W. H. Gibson, George A. Hickox, U. S. Senator O. H. Platt, Ehrich K. Rossiter, Clarence Deming, James P. Platt, and H. W. B. Howard—have coöperated to write the chapters which form a very complete picture of the man and of the scene of his labors. The literary quality of these several contributions is high and well sustained, with little repetition. Mr. Gibson, the delightful artist of rural nature, furnishes the introduction which Mr. Beecher's sudden death prevented him from writing—not as a pupil, of course, but as a patron of the school, and a warm friend of its head, by correspondence of temperament and of opinion. Mr. Gibson, however, in his 'Pastoral Days,' had already published charming reminiscences of his school life, and his chief part in the present enterprise has been the designs which give it a rare embellishment.

The admirable chapter on "Old Times in Judea," the historical background from which Mr. Gunn emerges, is topographically close of kin to the setting of Judd's 'Margaret,' and not less so in respect to manners and customs—the prevailing intemperance, the ridiculous militia, the clerical opposition to reform. Parson Hayes dispensed pulpit anathemas on heretics and unlicensed abolition apostles in Washington, Conn., and followed up an anti-slavery address by the gentle Quakeress, Abby Kelley, from Massachusetts, with a sermon whose text, meant to rebuke a woman's speaking in public, accused her of fornication and adultery. He brought, too, all his influence and that of his church to bear on Mr. Gunn as an abolitionist, excommunicating him religiously and socially, and hindering his endeavor to establish a school in the neighborhood. Indeed, this memorial is a genuine and valuable chapter of New England anti-slavery history.

Mr. Gunn's attitude towards intemperance

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was as pronounced as towards slavery and the pro-slavery religion of the day. He never lowered his standards for the sake of promoting his worldly fortune, and one of the most characteristic and touching passages in this volume occurs in a letter to his future wife, written while he was keeping school in Pennsylvania, and he seemed likely to have to face the question which Prudence Crandall met so nobly in his native State, whether he would deny instruction to any child on account of its color. In these matters, as time went on, his Connecticut townsmen came round to his side, or learned to differ from him and respect him. Like many another "fanatical" and "visionary" and "infidel" abolitionist, he gave them object lessons in practical charity and public spirit. Like Tolstoi, "he obtained permission to plough, fertilize, and sow a worn-out meadow owned by a widow or man too poor to cultivate it, afterwards taking great satisfaction in the sight of the new crop of fresh green herbage which he had produced." He came to be relied upon to settle disputes in town meeting. He gave a powerful lift to the village library, and fostered the social life of a large territory by introducing lecturers and by founding a successful dramatic institution for public objects. His school gave distinction to the place. He taught manliness, purity, and honor rather than a high degree of learning, in ways suggested by his knowledge of human nature, sympathy with boy nature in particular, and eccentric humor. He had no method to transmit or to be formulated for imitation. One feels, from the loving testimony here gathered together, and from his own "Words" preserved in the appendix, that he was a compeer of Evarts, Benjamin Silliman, and Chief-Justice Waite, his classmates at Yale, though his sphere was confined to a little corner of the Nutmeg State.

Olden-Time Music: A Compilation from Newspapers and Books. By Henry M. Brooks. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 12mo, pp. xx, 283.

THE bulk of the material is the apparent excuse for taking this volume out of the somewhat more handy "Olden-Time Series," to which it belongs by every characteristic. It sets out with an account of music in England before the Puritans came over, and it determines the hither limit of the "olden time" in this country by the year 1830, "although a few matters of a later date are incidentally mentioned." Mr. Brooks's method is unfavorable to a general view or distinct impression, yet much information is conveyed in a desultory manner. His reviewer can hardly be more connected. We read on page 33:

"An examination of the earliest 'inventories' in the Probate Office of Essex County [Mass.] fails to find record of any musical instruments appraised in the estates settled there. While every pot, skillet, gridiron, article of wearing apparel, old chair and table, bed, bolster and pillow, silver spoon, pewter dish, bushel of corn—indeed, articles of the most trifling nature—are carefully enumerated, no lutes, citterns, spinets, harpsichords, flutes, or viols are mentioned. This would seem to show that the early settlers did not possess these instruments, or that at least they must have been rarely seen here."

The first church-organ in Salem, purchased in 1743, was the fifth set up in New England; King's Chapel, Boston, having had the first. Dr. Flagg, a Boston dentist, going abroad in 1797, advertised that, if supported, he would "contract in Europe for the construction of a number of organs, calculated to play all tunes usually sung in places of worship, with interludes to each psalm, without the assistance of an organist." A Broadwood piano of 1791 is preserved at the rooms of the Essex Institute in Salem, and is pictured on page 141. Its contracted keyboard suggests an interesting comparison between the precocity of Mozart and Josef Hofmann as infant performers in public.

Mr. Brooks furnishes a large variety of concert programmes; and when Signor Pucci comes on the scene in 1815, the printer makes diabolic work of his foreign titles, as is the custom even to this day. Thus: "French Air—*a Gevudire Mama*," and "Song—*Alosanfan, dul' la Patri* (*Marseilles Hymn*)." In Salem, in 1816, there was a Jews'-Harp Club, which on February 2 was entreated to be punctual in attendance at a rehearsal of Handel's Hallelujah Chorus. The pedal harp was played by Master P. Lewis at an "extraordinary concert" in Boylston Hall, Boston, April 8, 1819, "after seven weeks' practice on that difficult Instrument." We recall no other mention of it in these pages, but as the only index is, oddly enough, one of proper names, our memory must pass for what it is worth. In the same city in 1790, a concert was given "for the benefit of Oliver Barron, one of the unhappy men who were cast away on Grand Manan; by which accident he had the misfortune to freeze his feet to such a degree as to be under the necessity of having them cut off, which has rendered him unable to support himself."

The great instrument-makers, Elias Hook with his organs and Jonas Chickering with his pianos; the first American composer, "William Billings, a native of Boston, in New England," and a genuine "original"; Henry K. Oliver, author of the hymn known as "Federal Street"; and a great number of minor personages, are directly or incidentally the subject of Mr. Brooks's discourse or of his newspaper clippings. He also reproduces some of the older music and some forgotten odes and ballads, and gives several curious delineations of spinets, harpsichords, and pianos, facsimiles of pictorial advertisements, a portrait silhouette, etc.

Christianity, Islam and the Negro Race. By Edward W. Blyden, LL.D., late Minister Plenipotentiary of the Republic of Liberia at the Court of St. James's. London: W. B. Whittingham & Co. 1887.

THE most striking thing to be noted in connection with this book is the personality of its author. Born in the island of St. Thomas, of the purest negro parentage, he went to Liberia in his seventeenth year, and there obtained his education and has spent the larger part of his life. In 1862 he was elected to a professorship in the newly founded College of Liberia, and became President of that institution in 1881. For two years he was the republic's Secretary of State, and in 1877 was appointed Minister to England. He has travelled extensively in Africa, spent some time in Syria acquiring Arabic, and has frequently visited the United States. He has been an acquaintance and correspondent of Lord Brougham, of Dean Stanley and Mr. Gladstone, and of Charles Sumner. When we add that, besides his knowledge of the classics, of Hebrew, Arabic, and several African dialects, he quotes familiarly from German, French, Italian, and Spanish authors, it may be believed that, as has been said of him, he is the most scholarly man of his race now living. And that he is not deficient in the rarer qualities of thorough and patient study, some of the papers in the book before us give abundant testimony. They show broad reading, minute investigation, a surprising mental alertness. As a speaker, according to those who have heard him in this country, he has an unusually persuasive eloquence.

It would be strange if such a man could have escaped entirely the limitations of his inheritance, and the judicious reader of his pages will not be surprised to find occasional displays of narrow prejudice. One such is seen in his rather laughable displeasure at the custom of writing negro with a small "n." He says of one of the remaining survivors of the original American abolitionists, that he "shows his own conception of the status and functions of the Negro by never using a capital letter in writing the word that describes the race" (p. 113, note). Thus to stick in the bark of a mere question of usage seems particularly ridiculous in view of the fact that Dr. Blyden repeatedly writes "whites" and "white man" with a small "w." In some more important matters, he shows a lack of good mental balance. We will instance his ideas on the proper education of negroes, as propounded in his inaugural address as President of the College of Liberia. He seriously contends for the wisdom of cutting off the great mass of Liberian youth from all knowledge of history, of science, of literature, or philosophy, since the Middle Ages. "We are still held in bondage by our indiscriminate and injudicious use of a foreign literature" (p. 89). "The instruments of culture which we shall employ in the College will be chiefly the Classics and Mathematics. By Classics I mean the Greek and Latin languages and their literature. In those languages there is not, as far as I know, a sentence, a word, or a syllable disparaging to the Negro. He may get nourishment from them without taking in any race-poison. They will perform no sinister work upon his consciousness, and give no unholy bias to his inclinations" (p. 97). These extracts will indicate the author's fanciful idea that the thing which keeps the negro degraded is the knowledge that his ancestors were slaves. He squarely says: "There is nothing that we need to know for the work of building up this country, in its moral, political, and religious character, which we may not learn from the ancients. There is nothing in the domain of literature, philosophy, or religion for which we need to be dependent upon the moderns." To speak of only one of the surprising parts of this educational programme, we cannot help asking if Dr. Blyden means to get on without the idea of personal rights, so peculiarly modern. What does he say to his students, when they come upon the Greek and Roman conception of slavery as the natural and inevitable lot of some classes in society? Or is it simply negro slavery that he is afraid to have mentioned in their hearing?

The two main contentions of the articles and addresses here collected by Dr. Blyden are, first, that the spread of Islam in western Africa has been almost an unmixed good to the tribes brought under its sway, and, second, that Christian missions to Africa, as at present conducted, will continue to be failures until they are put into the hands of natives. Liberia, he thinks, is to become the great source of evangelizing influences, and its future position as the leading African power and civilizer is to be assured, he believes, by the emigration of hundreds of thousands of negroes from the United States to the home of their fathers. As a speculation, this seems to us hardly worth discussing; but we must seriously question some of Dr. Blyden's statements of fact on this subject. He positively asserts that there are "thousands and tens of thousands" of the colored population of the United States who, "in various parts of the country, are asking for aid to reach the land of their fathers." In an

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address delivered before the Colonization Society, in 1880, he said that "there are thousands of Negroes, in comfortable circumstances here, who are yet yearning after the land of their fathers." But if "in comfortable circumstances," why not go at once at their own expense? Why "ask for aid"? The truth is, that there is a woful want of definiteness and absence of proof in all these broad statements. If they were true, it is incredible that nothing should have been heard of them in the press of this country. We have been warned of a great many imminent negro "exoduses" to various parts of the world, but never of a single one to Liberia. Dr. Blyden may be entirely correct, but we cannot be expected to believe it without a scrap of evidence. In the absence of that, we must rather think that his vague assertions rest wholly upon equally vague assurances of sympathy for his project, given him, here and there, as a result of his impassioned appeals. If there is anything more than this back of what he says, it was inexcusable in him not to have declared it; not to have given a single name of man or locality, nor a single application for transportation to Liberia, nor a single reference to persons who could substantiate his allegations. He admits that no considerable emigration is to be looked for without Government aid. That he should think this obtainable marks him as a highly sanguine spirit; that he should think that if it were obtained, "the emigration might be so excessive as to imperil the vital interests of the colony," that "the ambitious and turbulent" could be excluded and "thousands of industrious, hard-working farmers and mechanics" induced to go, seems to us a proof almost of temporary mental aberration.

What Dr. Blyden has to say about the relative achievements and prospects of Mohammedanism and Christianity in Africa is, of course, entitled to great respect from his position and opportunities. He cannot, however, blame the advocates of Christian missions if they argue from his exaggerating and enthusiastic habit of speech, as exemplified elsewhere, that he is more forensic than judicial in his discussions of these points. But it cannot well be doubted that he strongly reinforces the testimony going to show that, in west Africa at least, Islam has worked for civilization and moral improvement. A Christian himself, his profound conviction that the methods of Christian missions in Africa need radically to be changed, ought to receive at least a patient hearing from the authorities whom he addresses.

Ireland. By the Hon. Emily Lawless. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

It was not without considerable misgivings that we opened this book. Miss Lawless's conception of the Irish character in 'Hurrish,' and her close connection with one of the families most opposed to the Irish people on the land question, did not appear to us to qualify her for the task she had undertaken. A careful examination of the book proves that we were mistaken. It is an honest piece of work. The author does not accord sufficient merit to the supremacy in some respects of the early Christian art of the country, or realize the iniquity of the means by which Pitt's Union was accomplished, or give any key to the present troubles. We cannot agree with her that the struggle "has been almost wholly an agrarian one," or that we have no precedents to guide us in discounting the possible effects of home rule. There are a few unimportant slips as to dates and statements; but on the whole we have seldom met a work of the kind more conscientiously written, or which we could more unhesitatingly recommend. Many of the maps and illustrations are admirable. We must, however, enter our protest against the insertion of so many old engravings, which have been doing duty hither and thither for the past forty years, and to the distressing inequality in the scale of the portraits; nor is the selection of subjects for portraiture altogether happy.

Introductory Steps in Science, for the use of schools. By Paul Bert. Translated by Marc F. Vallette, LL.D., revised and enlarged by John Mickleborough, Ph.D. Appletons. 1887. 8vo, xiv, 363 pp., illustrated.

In the *Nation* of February 4, 1886, was noticed the version by Madame Bert of her husband's classical little manual for young children. The present work, by its title-page, purports to be an original translation, but the internal evidence would indicate that Madame Bert's language has been adopted almost bodily. It has been modified here and there, usually for the worse as regards style (although the original was literal and somewhat rough), and in the direction of inaccuracy as regards statement. The additions for the most part are such as tend to take away the elementary and harmonious character of the original, by inserting data more suitable for older students or remarks which are sometimes ludicrously pedantic.

The substitution of American animals and illustrations for those more familiar to European children which are given by Bert, would be an improvement if done with judgment; and larger cuts are to be preferred to those of the original. But the zoölogical part has evidently been revised by a person having little qualification for such a task; the cuts err on the side of excess, and, having been prepared for other works and merely utilized here, are not as well suited to the purpose as one might wish. By their insertion the book has been made larger and more costly, but, on the whole, we should prefer for our own use Madame Bert's original version with all its faults.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrows, W. The Indian's Side of the Indian Question. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Bonar, J. Letters of David Ricardo to Thomas Robert Malthus. 1810–1820. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Canadian Leaves: A Series of New Papers Read before the Canadian Club in New York. Napoleon Thompson & Co.
Child, Rev. F. S. Courage and Comfort that Concern the Ministry of Trouble. Baker & Taylor Co.
De Vere, A. Essays, Chiefly on Poetry. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Gage, Dr. A. P. Introduction to Physical Science. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gordon, Anna A. The White Ribbon Birthday Book. Chicago: Woman's Temp. Pub. Association. $1.
Great Authors, from Goldsmith to Wordsworth. T. Nelson & Sons.
Harte, B. A Phyllis of the Sierras, and A Drift from Redwood Camp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hufferst, E. W. English in the Preparatory Schools. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Lindley—Widney. California of the South. Complete Guide-Book. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Mitchell, S. W. A Masque, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Monteith, J. Familiar Animals and their Wild Kindred. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Oliphant—Aldrich. The Second Son: A Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Pearson, K. The Ethics of Free Thought: Essays and Lectures. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Pellew, G. Woman and the Commonwealth; or, a Question of Expediency. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Rogers, J. E. T. A History of Agriculture and Prices in England, from 1259 to 1793. Vols. v. and vi. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Ruete, Emily. Memoirs of an Arabian Princess. An Autobiography. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Slater, J. W. Sewage Treatment and Utilization. D. Van Nostrand.
Southwick, A. T. A Quiz Book on the Theory and Practice of Teaching. C. W. Bardeen.
The Hereafter. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 25 cents.
The Silent Dormitory, and Other Poems. By Ala. John Lockwood.
Webster, Augusta. The Sentence: A Drama. Scribner & Welford.
Weeks, Caleb S. Pope's Essay on Man, with Responding Essay: Man Seen in the Deepening Dawn. Fowler & Wells Co.
Welch—Duffield. Cæsar: Helvetian War. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Weldon's Fancy Costumes for Fancy Dress Balls, &c. Dick & Fitzgerald. 50 cents.
Wells—Bedford. Sonnets of Love and Life. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.
Wells, Kate Gannett. Miss Curtis: A Sketch. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.25.
Wenckebach—Schrakamp. Deutsche Grammatik für Amerikaner. 4th ed. Henry Holt & Co.
Westall, W. Her Two Millions: The Story of a Fortune. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
West, Mary Allen. Childhood: Its Care and Culture. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. $3.50.
What Shall We Talk About? or, Things that Every One Ought to Know. Illustrated. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Whitaker's Almanack for 1888. Thomas Whittaker. 40 cents.
Whiting, C. E. A New Part-Song and Chorus Book. For High Schools, &c. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Whiton, Dr. J. M. Turning Points of Thought and Conduct. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. Bird-Talk: A Calendar of the Orchard and Wild-Wood. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Whitney, W. D. Practical French. Henry Holt & Co.
Wiggin, Kate Douglas. The Bird's Christmas Carol. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Wilson, J. H. The Life and Services of Brevet Brigadier-General Andrew Jonathan Alexander, U. S. A. Public Service Publication Co.
Zola, Emile. La Terre. Paris: Charpentier.

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GUTZKOW'S ZOPF UND SCHWERT (Lustspiel). With introduction and notes by F. Lange, Ph.D. 12mo, paper, 173 pp. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail, 44 cents.

ANDERSEN'S BILDERBUCH OHNE Bilder. New edition, with notes and vocabulary, by Prof. L. Simonson, teacher of German in the Hartford (Ct.) High School.

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EBERS'S EINE FRAGE. Idyll zu einem Gemälde seines Freundes Alma Tadema. With introduction and notes by F. Storr, B.A. 117 pp. Teachers' price, 35 cents; by mail, 38 cents.

MOSER'S DER BIBLIOTHEKAR (The Private Secretary). With introduction and notes by Franz Lange, Ph.D. 162 pp. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail, 44 cents.

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